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Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania

a cross-country analysis of baseline research



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The 'Transforming Education for Girls Project' is run by Maarifa ni Ufunguo in Tanzania and Community Action for Popular Participation in Nigeria, supported by ActionAid and funded by Comic Relief and the Tubney Charitable Trust

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Executive summary

This report analyses data from the Baseline Study conducted for the Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT) project in Nigeria and Tanzania between 2007 and 2009. TEGINT is a Special Initiative begun in 2007 as a partnership between ActionAid, Maarifa ni Ufunguo (Maarifa) in Tanzania, and Community Action for Popular Participation (CAPP) in Nigeria funded by Comic Relief and the Tubney Charitable Trust. The overarching objectives of the Baseline Study were to:

- i) Identify key aspects of gender, education and socio-economic context in the districts/states in which the TEGINT project works;
- ii) Outline gender patterns on enrolment, attendance and progression in the schools in which TEGINT is operating;
- iii) Identify key gender aspects of school processes in the schools in which TEGINT is operating;
- iv) Assess forms of mobilisation that have taken place to support girls' access to and progression through the schools in which TEGINT is operating;
- v) Analyse views on obstacles to girls' education and how to overcome them;
- vi) Assess the implications of findings from the baseline research for future work in TEGINT.

Building from the TEGINT conceptual framework (Section 2.3), which is concerned with girls' views on the obstacles and strategies to advancing their education, the Study also set out to document the numbers of girls, boys and teachers in schools and to explore aspects of gendered power relations experienced by girls and boys at school.

Data was collected from survey interviews and questionnaires distributed to 1,053 respondents from 57 schools in six districts of Northern Tanzania and 1,735 respondents from 72 schools in eight states of Northern Nigeria in 2008. Follow-up in-depth interviews were carried out at 14 schools in Tanzania and 16 schools in Nigeria in 2009. Administrative data from school records was collated in 2008 and 2009 and a range of observations were made of school facilities.

Key findings

The objectives of the Study were formulated into key areas of investigation for the researchers, or aims, under which findings were generated by country. The findings and data are discussed in detail in the main report.

Aim 1: What girls say about aspirations, obstacles and ideas for change

Girls have high aspirations for their education in both Northern Tanzania and Northern Nigeria. Girls in both settings identify a broad range of obstacles and solutions to achieving these educational aspirations. In Tanzania, girls' responses regarding solutions tend to focus on short-term and less sustainable interventions, like sponsorship to pay school fees, whilst girls in Nigeria suggest a broader range including more political solutions such as stopping fees and levies. However, there is much variation in girls' views in both contexts in different schools and districts or states and the detail of these relationships emerges in the findings for other research aims.

Aim 2: Comparing the schools where TEGINT is working and other schools in the districts or states

Gender gaps in enrolment have virtually closed in the schools in which the project is working in Tanzania but they remain in Nigeria. There is a similar pattern in attainment although actual pass rates are higher overall in Nigeria. This may be because a lower proportion of girls actually reach the end of Junior Secondary School in Nigeria than primary school in Tanzania, hence the population eligible for exams is smaller. In both contexts the TEGINT project is working in schools with slightly higher gender parity in enrolment and attainment than the state or district

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averages, but not in all cases. However, gender gaps in all locations are higher than national rates. There are large variations in the size of the gender gaps in different districts and states, but these did not necessarily relate to overall poverty indicators. There are minor urban-rural differences. Much school-level data was missing or poor quality in the Nigerian schools, making it difficult to monitor, assess and act on gender gaps and the problems of girls' and boys' attendance, progression and attainment.

Aim 3: School conditions and what girls say about them

Girls' capacity to voice concerns about education was most evident in schools that had the smallest gender gaps in enrolment, attendance, progression and completion. In both countries a strikingly higher proportion of girls living in areas of lower poverty but higher inequality (particularly districts/states with large urban areas) articulate a wider range of concerns and cite the more political strategies than girls living in areas of absolute poverty. This suggests that whether or not girls are able to give voice to educational problems and solutions depends on particular contextual features of the communities in which they live, the levels of gender inclusiveness of the schools, and the extent to which more critical views may or may not be tolerated. It suggests that girls being able to see alternatives may be very important in expanding their critical awareness and ability to strategise for solutions.

Aim 4: Teacher qualifications, girls' progression and attainment, and perceptions of schooling

Better trained teachers are associated with girls speaking out more about obstacles to completing their education and possible solutions. In Nigerian states with more economic, political and educational opportunities for women, girls are more able to articulate a wider range of demands for their schooling. Higher proportions of female teachers and lower pupil-teacher ratios are associated with reduced gender parity in enrolment, attendance, progression and attainment in the project schools in Tanzania, but not in Nigeria.

Aim 5: Payments demanded by schools and links to girls' views and levels of attainment

Despite the existence of legal and policy frameworks in Nigeria and Tanzania to ensure free schooling, basic education is not free. A range of levies are charged with wide disparities between schools, states and districts. In Nigeria a clear link between levies and girls' dropping out of school was documented. Higher levies are charged in schools with the biggest gender gaps. Girls talked of missing school to avoid the humiliation of being unable to pay and corporal punishment. Some girls work in the market to earn the funds which will allow them back to school. In both countries government funding is insufficient. In Tanzania the schools with smallest gender gaps are getting the least government funding but charging the highest levies. In Nigeria, government allocations are associated with state and local political networks.

Aim 6: School Management Committees / Parent Teacher Associations and support for girls' attainment and capacity to speak out

School committees are more established in Tanzania than Nigeria, with a longer history and clearer mandate within decentralised governance structures. This is reflected in action taken on gender, with committees in Tanzania reporting a wider range of activities in support of girls' education. Women are underrepresented on school committees in Tanzania, but much more so in Nigeria where many committees have no female membership. Higher levels of female membership seem to translate into higher gender parity in enrolment, attendance, progression and completion at schools in Tanzania, with a weaker relationship in Nigeria, perhaps because so many committees were not active at the time of the Study.

Aim 7: Gender, generation and school-community gap

There are troubling silences and a lack of understanding on the part of some teachers, school committees, village leaders and parents of the levels of violence girls are exposed to and the effects of poverty on children's schooling. Girls experience multiple forms of violence, including corporal and other humiliating punishments at school, sexual



PHOTO: CHRIS MORGAN/GCE/ACTIONAID

harassment and coerced sex in exchange for money or goods which are sometimes needed to pay for the costs of schooling. In both contexts there was a denial by many head teachers and other officials of violence taking place in schools. They lack knowledge on actions to take and any that are taken are rarely in the girls' best interests. Head teachers seem to be aware that actions are inadequate, particularly in Tanzania, but linkages are weak between schools and communities and reporting systems are largely ineffective. Girls' views on major obstacles in completing their education are not shared by all the adults and communities who manage and teach in the schools they attend.

Next steps

The data from the Baseline Study emphasises that the TEGINT project is working in complex local environments and the picture of girls' education is different in particular locations associated with school and community conditions. The research confirms the importance of particular strategic

interventions concerned with teacher education and expanding girls' horizons pointing to a need for further investigation into approaches to working in a sustained and strategic way at multiple levels with teachers, parents, school committees, communities, local government and, crucially, girls themselves to transform their education. It highlights the importance of in-school and out-of-school approaches to bring about significant change for gender equality. Recommendations for the project developed collaboratively by project teams, indicated particular interventions, discussions and forms of mobilisation needed.

Responding to this Baseline Study, TEGINT in 2011 will undertake in-depth qualitative case studies on the relationship between levies, early marriage and experiences of violence to girls' drop out from school (Nigeria) and how School Management Committees' engagement with gender issues contributes to girls' retention and progression in school and their empowerment (Tanzania).

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Foreword

This report is the culmination of much work by the Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT) project partnership, in particular the work of the national implementing partners Maarifa ni Ufunguo in Tanzania and Community Action for Popular Participation in Nigeria and several national research partners who undertook work for this Baseline Study. This report was coordinated and compiled by the Institute of Education, University of London in August 2011.

The TEGINT project, which began in January 2008, aims to achieve a transformation in the education of girls in Nigeria and Tanzania, enabling them to enrol and succeed in school by addressing key challenges and obstacles that hinder their participation in education and increase their vulnerability to HIV and AIDS. Research is an integral part of the project, contributing to understanding and recognition of key issues for girls' education in the two countries in which the project works and internationally, and advancing the project's implementation and advocacy work. The issues that emerge from this comparative report, including the critical obstacles for girls' education

of early marriage, early pregnancy and poverty; the insufficient support for female teachers deployed in rural areas and for women's leadership in school committees; and the fees and levies that continue to be charged for basic education, are pertinent to education and development internationally and require all of us to take action to transform education and enable girls to achieve their aspirations.

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Acting Head of Education
ActionAid International
September 2011

Acronyms

BERE	Bureau of Education Research and Evaluation
CAPP	Community Action for Popular Participation
CCM	Chama Cha Mapinduzi (Party of the Revolution in Swahili)
COBET	Complimentary Basic Education in Tanzania
CPS	Country Partnership Strategy
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DFID	UK Department for International Development
EFA	Education for All
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FMOE	Federal Ministry of Education
GAD	Gender and Development
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GEP	Girls' Education Programme
GPI	Gender Parity index
INSET	In Service Education and Training
LG	Local Government
LGA	Local Government Area/Authority
LGEA	Local Government Education Authority
LGC	Local Government Council
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MNU	Maarifa Ni Ufunguo
NCE	National Certificate in Education
NCWS	National Council of Women's Societies
ND	No data available
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (Nigeria's poverty reduction strategy)
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGP	National Gender Policy
NPE	National Policy on Education
SAGEN	Strategy for Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria
PGDEd	Postgraduate Diploma in Education
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SC	School Committee
SEEDS	State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (Nigeria)
SBMC	School based management committee
SMC	School Committee
SUBEB	State Universal Basic Education Boards
TEGINT	Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania
TGNP	Tanzania Gender Network Programme
TTC	Teacher Training College
UBE(C)	Universal Basic Education (Commission)
WID	Women in Development
VCT	Voluntary Counselling and Testing
VEO	Village Executive Officer
VH	Village Head

Glossary

Attendance	Attending school regularly. Data on school attendance collected for the baseline report indicates children were at school on a particular census day. Attendance data collected for other reports may use different methodologies.
Child marriage	Marriage by young people who are less than the general legal minimum age: 18 years in Nigeria and 15 years for girls and 18 years for boys in Tanzania.
Community mobilisation	Community action and activities that involve relationships in one location oriented to social development and change within that location.
Completion	Completing study up to the end of a particular phase of schooling (e.g. primary or secondary). School completion does not necessarily entail passing public examinations at the end of a phase. In Nigeria school completion is usually considered in relation to basic education (i.e. 6 years of Primary School plus 3 years at Junior Secondary School, at the end of which pupils receive a certificate whether or not they transfer to senior secondary school). In Tanzania school completion occurs at the end of the primary cycle of education, i.e. 7 years. Some, but not all children are entered for a public examination at the end of this phase.
Enrolment	The number of pupils registered to attend school
Gender Parity Index	The number of girls as a proportion of the number of boys; a gender parity index of 1 indicates equal numbers of girls and boys. An index of less than 1 indicates more boys than girls, and an index of above 1 more girls than boys.
Maarifa ni Ufunguo	<i>Knowledge is the Key</i> (Swahili). NGO working in Northern Tanzania.
MKUKUTA	Swahili acronym for Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kuondoa Umaskini Tanzania - literally <i>Tanzania National Strategy for growth and poverty eradication</i>

1. Introduction

The Baseline Study for the Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT) project analyzed data collected in the northern regions of those two countries between 2007 and 2010. Three volumes discussing the baseline studies are available: this volume (Volume 1) provides a background to the TEGINT project and a comparative analysis of some of the conditions regarding gender and education in Tanzania and Nigeria. It outlines the conceptualisation of the studies and some discussions within the literature which informed this study. Methodological issues raised by the research design are reviewed and details of the research process provided. This report then discusses findings from the two national studies in a comparative context, drawing out the significance of similarities and differences and what they indicate in relation to wider international literature on girls' education in Africa, as well as diverse forms of social mobilisation to support gender equality in education.

Detailed discussion of findings from the Baseline Study in Nigeria is presented in Volume 2 and from Tanzania in Volume 3. In each of these country-specific volumes baseline data are reviewed in the light of debates concerning girls' education and questions of gender, and a series of recommendations arising from the findings of the study for work are outlined.

1.1 Background to TEGINT

TEGINT is a Special Initiative begun in 2007 as a partnership between ActionAid, Maarifa ni Ufunguo (Maarifa) in Tanzania, and Community Action for Popular Participation (CAPP) in Nigeria funded by Comic Relief and the Tubney Charitable Trust.

The overall goal of the project is to achieve a transformation in the education of girls in Nigeria and Tanzania, enabling them to enrol and succeed in school by addressing key challenges and obstacles that hinder their participation in education and increase their vulnerability to HIV and AIDS.

The project objectives are:

1. To build the capacity of girls (and boys) in the project areas to challenge gender discrimination.
2. To promote participatory modules on gender and HIV and AIDS in national pre- service and in-service teacher training in Tanzania and Nigeria

3. To facilitate capacity building and ongoing support to school management committees and the wider community addressing HIV and AIDS and girls' rights in education.
4. To facilitate the development of legal and policy frameworks, and good practice, that will enhance and protect girls' rights in school.
5. To build the capacity of CAPP and Maarifa Ni Ufunguo as leading national organizations in education, gender and HIV and AIDS.

Three learning questions articulated by the project partnership in April 2008 indicate the kind of changes this significant effort might generate:

1. What is the importance of working collaboratively, and in a sustained and systematic way, with all the different stakeholders at different levels?
2. What factors are most important in bringing about the change needed to transform education for girls and how do these factors interact in the diverse communities in which TEGINT works?
3. How do the allocation and management of financial resources (and the support of community structures to demand and monitor these) affect the inclusion and retention of girls in school?

SECTION 1

From these learning questions the TEGINT Hypothesis was generated:

We can truly transform the education of girls by working with diverse individuals and organisations on a sustained and systematic basis in a strategic and combined way at multiple levels, using participatory and dialogic methods and explicitly addressing gender discrimination.

An iterative process of research, implementation and learning and reflection enables the project to engage with and respond to these three questions. In addition, for the project to be successful we recognise the need to:

- Build on the existing strengths and track record of credible national NGOs (Maarifa and CAPP), strengthen their skills (particularly in child participation and gender), and build their capacity for implementation and monitoring and evaluation;
- Rigorously monitor work through the use of reputable external research institutes that build evidence to influence policy and practice at regional, national and international levels;
- Work in close collaboration with research and intervention organisations to use a combined approach that links the community-level initiatives, research and advocacy in the project.

The three volumes of the baseline study are the outcome of discussions within the project partnership over the design, analysis and assessment of the findings from a number of inter-linked research projects. The reports are themselves an attempt to rigorously monitor the project as a contribution to policy and practice on quality education for girls.

1.2 The Project Partnership

A number of different organisations collaborate on TEGINT through processes of joint planning, collaborative implementation and evaluation. Key project partners involved in directly implementing project activities are:

ActionAid is a leading international NGO that works with local partners to fight poverty worldwide though securing basic human rights, including the right to education. Staff in ActionAid offices in Nigeria, Tanzania and the international education team are part of the TEGINT partnership.

Maarifa ni Ufunguo ('Knowledge is the key') was established in 1998 working with communities in Northern Tanzania. Its vision is of achieving quality education that promotes access, equity and social integration and which is affordable and ethically managed.

Community Action for Popular Participation (CAPP) was founded in 1993 in Nigeria. It has a membership base of 14,000. Its mission is to empower communities to participate in all decisions that affect their lives and livelihoods so as to bring about a just and democratic Nigeria. CAPP places particular emphasis on education and has worked in schools and trained school management committees across Northern Nigeria.

The project design for TEGINT comprises a significant research component, where data is used to review aspects of project planning and evaluation. The main research organisations working with TEGINT on baseline studies were:

Bureau of Education Research and Evaluation (BERE), University of Dar es Salaam: BERE is a research unit of the Department of Education at the University of Dar es Salaam. A team led by Professor J. Galabawa contributed to the design, collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data from Tanzania and participated in a number of meetings reflecting on the links between research and project implementation. For full details of all those contributing to discussions see Appendix 1.

Institute of Development Research, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria (IDR): IDR is a research institute of the Ahmadu Bello University. A team led by Dr Oga Steve Abah contributed to the design, collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data for the pilot phase of the baseline study in 2007.

A team lead by Z. K. A. Bonat of **Centre for Population and Development** and Helen Kezie-Nwoha of **Abantu for Development** contributed to the design, collection and analysis of quantitative data for the main phase of the baseline study in 2008.

Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto: A team led by Dr Fatima Adamu at the Department of Sociology of Usman Danfodiyo University contributed to the design, collection and analysis of qualitative data for the baseline study in 2009 -2010 and participated in the research workshop in April 2011 which agreed the key findings and recommendations.

Institute of Education, University of London (IOE)

A team based in the Centre for Critical Education Policy Studies (CeCEPS), led by Professor Elaine Unterhalter helped design the baseline research, coordinated cross-country analysis, and led the dissemination of the research to international audiences. This team (Appendix 1) participated in meetings reviewing and refining the research in relation to project implementation.

The project funders have contributed actively to discussions of objectives, learning questions, research design, analysis, implementation and evaluation. The funders are:

Comic Relief, a UK based charity which raises funds and awareness, and distributes money for specific charitable purposes in support of the vision of ‘a just world free from poverty’. The award to TEGINT was one of the first in a new proactive programme of grant-making, which covers strategic grants to support key organisations with longer term secure funding, usually over 5 years, to enable them to scale up or replicate their work and have greater influence in their sectors.

The Tubney Charitable Trust is a UK grant-making trust who has provided substantial financial support to the project in association with Comic Relief.

1.3 A note on terminology

‘Schooling’ and ‘education’ are used interchangeably throughout the three volumes of the Baseline Study to indicate educational activities that take place in formal schools (generally primary and junior secondary schools). We acknowledge that many educational activities are not associated with formal schooling and that children may attend school and not receive quality education that enhances learning. For this report, when we are concerned with education in its widest sense entailing learning in many sites (in and outside school), we use the term ‘education’. When we discuss learning activities taking place only in formal schools, particularly in the discussion of findings (Section 5), we term the term ‘schooling’.

‘Gender’ also has a range of meanings (see Section 2.3). We recognise the discussions by scholars regarding the complexity of the contexts where this term is used (Walker, 1983; Meena, 1992; Oyewumi, 1997) and in considering the space of education have drawn on the distinctions made in Unterhalter (2005; 2007). According to this interpretation, descriptive meanings of gender as girls and boys are contrasted with meanings that entail forms of relationship of power and aspects of empowerment, attempting to consider these in relation to the historical and cultural nuance enjoyed by writers on education, women and gender in Africa (Chilisa and Ntseane, 2010). The text in these reports generally refers to girls and boys when these groups are being discussed and to gender when social relations, perceptions and power relations are at issue.

2. Conceptualising the Baseline Study

2.1 Aims for the research

The Baseline Study for TEGINT intended to examine the provision of education for girls and boys in schools in which the project works in northern Tanzania and northern Nigeria. They set out to assess and compare the views of a number of groups on gender and schooling, setting these within the context of local conditions with a view to mapping the perspectives of diverse individuals and organisations to see what understandings they have of gender discrimination in school and how to address it, and what differences might exist between aspirations for gender equality and education and actual conditions in schools.

The baseline studies in both countries investigated seven areas:

- i) What girls attending schools in which TEGINT works say about their schooling, what obstacles they anticipate encountering and how they feel these can be overcome;
- ii) What the gender profiles are in enrolment, attendance and progression in the schools in which the project is working, and how these may be similar or different to other schools in those districts or states;
- iii) What insight these indicators provide on girls' views about the support that they receive with their schooling;
- iv) Teacher conditions, notably class size, qualifications, gender and teacher deployment, forms of training on gender and HIV and AIDS and the extent to which teachers consider the schools in which they work support girls' education;
- v) What payments schools receive and how these relate to school gender profiles and girls' views on their schooling;
- vi) The work of school committees, the training they have provided for their members and to parents, their approaches to addressing gender based violence at school and how gender mainstreaming in management may or may not relate to gender profiles regarding girls' progression and attainment and girls' views on their schooling;
- vii) How gender, generation and processes for community connection bear on views about the obstacles girls confront in continuing their education and the forms of mobilisation that should be used to address this.

In this cross-country comparative report findings for each of the seven areas are presented, and some of the similarities and differences that emerge are reviewed and set within the context of debates about gender and girls' education in Africa.

2.2 Debating gender and girls' education in Africa

There is a wide ranging debate on how to understand different facets of gender and girls' schooling in Africa. In the particular contexts of northern Tanzania and northern Nigeria gender inequalities are marked, but the different features, histories and dynamics of each country require careful interpretation.

Since 1990 and the emergence of the global EFA (Education for All) movement, much of the literature on girls' education in Africa has focussed on questions of access and 'what works' to secure girls' enrolment and attendance (e.g. Odaga and Heneveld, 1995; Colclough et al, 2002; Herz and Sperling, 2004). In these analyses significant features of ensuring girls' access and progression are the removal of school fees, employment of female teachers, supporting the education of mothers, and bolstering political will to take forward a focus on girls' education. However, as remarked by many commentators this stress on

access often failed to take account of women's lack of equal rights to health, housing, political participation and work (Meena, 1993; Mbilinyi, 1998), while terms associated with gender were often depoliticised and demobilising of women's activism (Lewis, 2010). Writings on schooling came to highlight the importance of focussing not only on access, but on the gender conditions in schools and communities, and some of the outcomes of schooling (e.g. Beoku Betts, 1998; Stephens, 2000; Aikman and Unterhalter, 2005; Leach and Mitchell, 2007; Lewis, and Lockheed 2007; Chapman and Miske, 2007; Dunne, 2008). These identify complex contextual gender dynamics in schools, families and communities, which may be associated with little-acknowledged but nonetheless high levels of gender-based violence in school, or with ethnic and class inequalities. Different approaches to challenging gender inequalities or poverty in schooling are highlighted as extremely salient in understanding why 'simple' solutions, such as mobilisation campaigns or incentives, are not always adequate to redress the multiple forms in which gender inequality undermines the capacity of girls and communities to challenge gender discrimination and claim girls' rights to education.

In Tanzania and Nigeria much writing on questions of gender and schooling has been framed by the high profile given to these issues in government policy. In both countries concerted efforts have been made to develop policy and roll out provision for expanded access to primary education, and particular attention has been paid to girls. Primary education was made free in 2001 in Tanzania, and since 2000 there has been a spectacular increase in enrolment in primary education, which grew by 50% from 4.4 million in 2000 to 6.6 million in 2003, and reached 8.4 million in 2009 (Pitamber and Hamza, 2005; MoEVT, 2009). Throughout this period national statistics show equal numbers of girls and boys enrolling in primary school, with UNESCO reporting a gender parity index (GPI) of 0.99 for Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) in 2007 (UNESCO, 2010, 418). The latest figures for primary NER for the school year ending in 2007 give this at 98% (98 for boys and 97 for girls) (UNESCO, 2010, 347). In Nigeria, the new Constitution adopted in 1999 with the end of military rule acknowledged the importance of free, compulsory primary education. A wide range of Universal Basic Education (UBE) programmes were designed to ensure free Basic

Education for nine years to all Nigerian children, many with an explicit focus on girls. However, translating this aspiration into practice has proved extremely challenging. The latest (2007) assessments for the country indicate a NER for primary school of 64% (68 for boys, 60 for girls and a GPI of 0.88) (UNESCO, 2010, 347). There are thus clear differences between Tanzania and Nigeria in relation to their capacity to expand school provision, despite policy commitments to free education. However, the aggregate figures for both countries mask regional differences and problems with distribution. In Tanzania and Nigeria there are particular geographical areas where access to schooling has been more limited and forms of exclusion of girls more marked. TEGINT was set up partly to address this.

Academic analysis of gender and schooling in both countries highlights uneven access according to levels of poverty, location and local gender dynamics. In Tanzania this analysis has highlighted the impact of structural adjustment policies on the capacities of families to keep girls in school beyond a basic cycle, despite government promotion of access (Vavrus 2003; 2005; Semali, 2007; Samoff 2008); the extent to which schooling might protect girls from HIV and the effects of the epidemic on schooling (Baylies and Bujra, 2000; Papa et al, 2000; Juma, 2002; Vavrus, 2006); the changing emphases in and responses to government policy (Mbilinyi, 1998; Bendera, 1999; Swainson, 2000; Wedgewood, 2007); and the different engagements of communities in Northern Tanzania with the education of daughters. For example, the Chagga, who grow cash crops but have had limited high yield land for women to inherit, have actively sought high levels of education for young women over generations (Stambach, 1998; Hattori and Larsen, 2007). Other groups, many engaged in nomadic pastoralism, withdraw girls from school at or before puberty, sometimes because of the importance of marriage relationships in building up and maintaining herds (Burke and Beegle, 2004; Kloumann, Manongie and Klepp, 2005). Okkolin et al (2010) show how gender parity, evident in the expansion of provision for primary education, does not translate fully into secondary schooling or support for children with disabilities. They conclude on the need for policy to move from gender sensitization to gender responsiveness taking on board the multiple formations of gender inequality in society.

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In 2007 the Tanzania Gender Network published a gender profile of Tanzania (Mascarenhas, 2007) which acknowledged the presence of women in political decision-making, gains in women's access to economic resources, education and health. However, it highlighted women's continued insecurities in access to land despite legal reforms. These were often associated with the persistence of customary law and practices which inhibited women's inheritance rights. A number of socio-cultural practices and inequalities with regard to health and risk of violence meant that much work on gender equality remained to be done. The report identified key areas for gender equality initiatives, such as early marriage, local legal practices entrenching male authority over marriage and land, and female genital mutilation (FGM). It pointed out how these combined with inadequate access to reproductive health and family planning provision, higher levels of HIV infection for women compared to men, and high levels of rape and domestic violence in some areas. A changing political economy in Tanzania and the complexity of regional histories and socio-economic practices mean that realizing policy aspirations for wider education provision and gender equity is a difficult process.

In Nigeria changing policies on education provision in the North have been documented, drawing out the impact and inequalities on boys and girls in school (Moja, 2000; Obasi, 2000; Denga 2000; Dyer, 2001; Usman 2006; Usman 2008; Tuwor and Sossou, 2008). Numerous government reports and academic assessments indicate that despite government policy on expanding education and supporting gender parity in enrolments, these have been difficult to achieve (Egunyomi, 2006; UNICEF, 2007; Akunga and Attfield, 2010). Dauda (2007), reviewing the range of policy initiatives on girls' education, concluded that while there had been some clear gains in improving access, in general government policy entailed 'lots of talk and no action'. In addition, a number of commentators highlight how, in spite of the expansion of education, ideas that emphasise women's subordination have not been challenged (Okome, 2000; Pereira 2003). Much attention has been given to improving access to schooling, but less focus has been placed on gender relations within schools, processes of learning and teaching, and what opportunities girls have beyond school. The extensive gender inequalities which exist in political, economic, social and cultural life make

schooling a particularly significant site for girls to develop some of the skills, insights and social relations to challenge these.

Thus the contextual challenges concerning gender relations in Tanzania and Nigeria are somewhat different. In Tanzania much of the institutional framework for equality is in place and key challenges for equality include addressing a range of socio-cultural practices associated with marriage, sexual harassment, and levels of gender-based violence. A second concerns the difficulties girls from the poorest communities face in completing primary school and entering secondary school. In Nigeria the contextual challenges relate to putting an institutional framework for equality in place and at the same time addressing deeply entrenched socio-cultural attitudes to marriage and control over girls and women. While in Tanzania transforming education for girls is about working with them to engage with equitable institutions, in Nigeria it is about working with them to try to establish those institutions equitably from the beginning. However, in both countries socio-economic practices that centre on marriage reveal a nexus of processes associated with gender inequality. The extent to which relations associated with school may contribute to changing these is not yet well documented.

2.3 Conceptual framing for the Study

TEGINT is concerned with the inter-relationship between expanding girls' access to school, improving their experience of learning and addressing conditions of gender inequality. The baseline studies for the project were thus located at the intersection of a number of approaches to thinking about gender and education in the context of international development. These approaches comprise: firstly, Women in Development (WID), which emphasises numbers of girls and boys enrolling in school, progressing to completion and participating in the labour market and political decision-making (King and Hill, 1993); secondly, the Gender and Development (GAD) approach that considers unequal structures of power within schools and societies (Moser, 1994; Kabeer); thirdly, the work of a number of African scholars documenting the complexity of communities and the politics of knowledge about gender (Nnaemeka, 1993; Mbilinyi, 1998; Beoku Betts, 2008; Arnfred

and Adomako, 2010); and, fourthly, the gender, empowerment and capabilities approach, which looks at the ways in which opportunities can be expanded for girls and boys to secure lives they have reason to value, with a focus on what a person is able to do and to be, opportunities and freedoms to realise this, and concern to address injustice and inequality (Agarwal, Humphries, Robeyns, 2005; Unterhalter, 2008; Nussbaum, 2011).

In distinguishing between WID and GAD, Unterhalter (2005) noted that while each can give some level of insight, both omit crucial aspects of understanding gender and schooling, and thus a combination yields greater explanatory depth. The WID framework is concerned with the expansion of education linked to efficiency, economic growth and social stability. It views gender in relatively uncomplicated ways, stressing clear social divisions between women and men based on biological differences which are regarded as easily observed and defined. WID often generate clear policy directives regarding, for example, employing more women teachers to reassure parents regarding girls' safety at school, or expanding access to schooling for girls through various incentive schemes or social mobilisation (King and Hill, 1993). The GAD framework considers gender as part of complex and changing social relations generally related to structures of economic ownership, sexual division of labour and forms of status and power. GAD is alert to complex processes entailed in the reproduction and transformation of gendered relations in schools, but it is less easily translatable into simple policy demands. However, GAD approaches have had some impact on practice, particularly with regard to how teachers view work in a gendered classroom, how women's organisations link education demands within wider demands for empowerment, and the ways in which gender equality advocates work in institutions. The practice of gender mainstreaming identified in 1995 at the Beijing women's conference has sometimes been used as shorthand for this, although much critical literature exists on how gender mainstreaming works in practice (Unterhalter and North, 2010).

The capability approach is concerned with an individual's capability or 'ability to do valuable acts or reach valued states of being' (Sen, 1993, 30), how individuals convert education, [an important

capability], into achievements (or functionings), such as healthy lives or good social relationships, and the social and personal contexts that limit or expand capabilities. In this approach gender is both a form of social constraint that might limit the identification of capabilities (Sen, 1990) and, [in a stress on women's capabilities (Nussbaum, 2000),] a particular orientation that notes how often women's wellbeing and capabilities are not given sufficient attention. Thus writings on capability, gender and education outline the ways in which gender may prevent education acting as a capability multiplier and the ways in which policy focussed on expanding capabilities for girls and boys suggests education change must be seen as multi-dimensional and interrelated (Unterhalter, 2007; Walker and Unterhalter, 2007). Much of the writing on the capability approach and education is at a high level of abstraction. In contrast, the work of African theorists of gender stresses the significance of local contexts, histories and complex relationships where multi-dimensional meanings require careful attention (Mbilyi, 1998; Nnaemeka, 2004; Lewis, 2010). This commentary raises a key issue concerning the ways in which overarching abstractions can (and often do) serve to depoliticise the particular everyday struggles of women.

Each of these broad frameworks pointed to some aspect of the context of shifting gender relations and schooling in Northern Tanzania and Northern Nigeria, but none was a 'best fit' with the general goal of the project for the transformation of education for girls and its hypothesis concerning systematic and strategic working. We thus drew selectively on each approach. From the WID approach we identified the importance of collecting information on the numbers of girls and boys enrolling, attending, progressing through and completing school, coupled with documentation on school facilities, teacher numbers and their level of training and qualifications. This information is valuable in charting trends in particular areas, which would alert us to particular local variations in the project areas, which in turn could help inform strategies for action. However, we acknowledged that on its own it could not tell us why and how change may be taking place.

The GAD approach stresses the significance of gendered power relations inside households with regard to allocations of time, money and esteem, which have particular consequences for how girls'

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schooling is negotiated and what happens when girls are pregnant or leave school. It also points to the importance of understanding gendered forces at work in schools and the ways in which the cultures of teaching and learning and the hidden curriculum with regard to status may enforce particular identities of subordination for girls and some boys. Studies have documented many ways in which girls experience violence within schools and in travelling between home and school (Leach et al 2003; Leach and Mitchell 2007). The general GAD approach highlights how the effects of these multiple gendered power relations are unequal outcomes for boys and girls, and for poorer and richer communities. With regard to the baseline study it would not be possible to examine the intricate relations of power and gender, but we were concerned with mapping particular conditions in the schools in which the project works, for example management, training, and social mobilisation, and relating this to the socio-economic context in districts and states. We also set out to learn what was being reported about levels of pregnancy and incidents of violence and if there might be any connection between these and patterns of enrolment, attendance and progression.

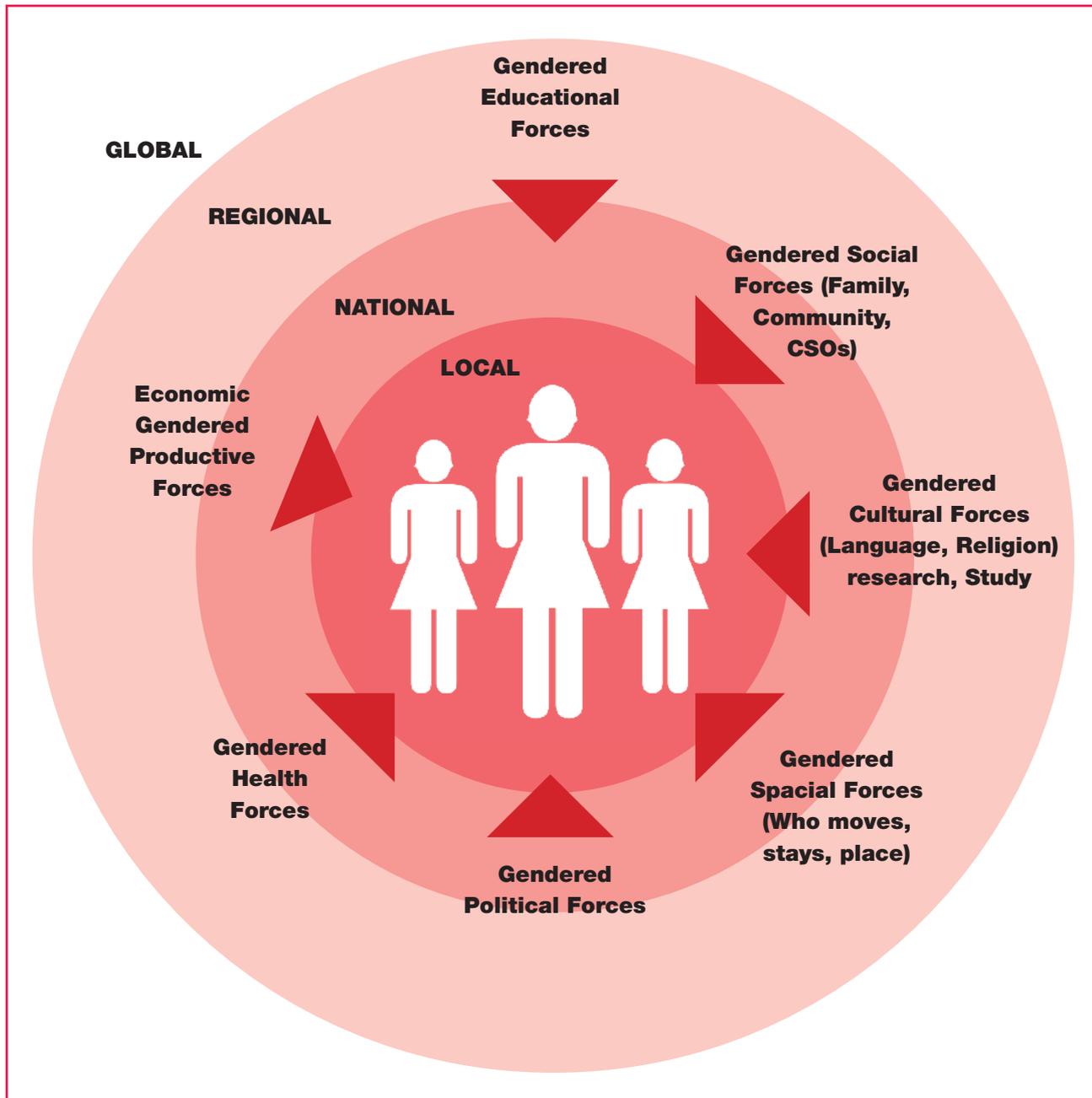
The work of many African theorists of gender have urged attention to the complexity of relations within households, schools and communities, and interpreting the complexities of reproductive rights, voice and political mobilization (Mbilinyi, 1998; Salo, 2001). They point to the significance of studying the connections between communities as much as the divisions (Mama, 2007; Gaza, 2007).

The capabilities or empowerment approach identifies the importance of attending to what particular actors (pupils, teachers, school managers or education officials) say they have reason to value and what they view as significant constraints and possibilities for change. In operationalising the approach and developing indicators of human development a number of writers have pointed to how illuminating the cultivation of particular indicators for ranking levels of human development, gender development and

gender empowerment can be (Sen, 1999; Fukuda Parr and Kumar, 2003). The possibility of looking at ways of ranking gender conditions in different schools and relating this to patterns of enrolment and attendance and features of GAD such as management and reported incidents of violence was one issue the design of the studies considered as a possible outcome of the research.

In developing the conceptual underpinnings for the study the project team felt that each of the approaches portrayed a part of the story that was important in Tanzania and Nigeria. However, in order to understand the multiple dimensions of the transformation of education, a more nuanced framework, which integrated the particular forms of diversity in the two countries, was needed. A WID focus on enrolment and participation would not allow us to understand the gendered social relations that might account for low or high rates in particular areas. A GAD study of power relations at school or in the community, might not allow us to capture the ways in which education or changes in policy was contributing to change. A study focussing on empowerment or the local context might not allow us to see how agency or outcomes were constrained or how wider forms of social development, linked to socio-economic or political change were advancing conditions for expanded access to resources, enhanced agency of girls and better outcomes.

The TEGINT project team thus developed a conceptual framework at the centre of which we placed the agency, judgement, and actions of girls in schools - drawing particularly on approaches to empowerment and capability (Sen, 1999; Nussbaum, 2000; Kabeer, 1999), and questions of voice, household relations and negotiations (Nnaemeka, 2003; Gasa, 2007). The framework reflects the project's commitment to understanding girls' voices, reflections and actions, and the ways in which their capabilities are constrained or can expand with the result that they may claim and develop their rights to education and strengthen their capacity to protect themselves against HIV.



The conceptual framework indicates that the project understands girls as active agents, who think about their lives, articulate their views and act. These girls are engaged in social relations with each other, with boys, parents, teachers, education officials, men and women in their communities, and the project's implementing partners to bring about change. Each girl is important, and we acknowledge the networks of social relations in which they live. A range of

forces constrain the opportunities for education and empowerment of these girls in both countries. They live in societies that are stratified by gender, class, ethnicity, religion and other social divisions, which have complex histories and dynamics and differ between locales. These intersecting divisions currently entail forms of discrimination, inequality and poverty although in both countries government have policies that are attempting to address this. We see the girls'



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lives as being constrained by a range of forces which 'press down' through the exercise of various forms of power:

- Gendered productive and economic forces;
- Gendered educational forces;
- Gendered social forces (family, community, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs),
- Gendered cultural forces (language, religion, forms of knowledge production);
- Gendered spatial forces (constraints on movement e.g. purdah, household chores);
- Gendered political forces;
- Gendered health forces (HIV, access to food, pregnancy);
- Gendered livelihood forces (drought, migration, access to housing).

This list is not exhaustive and there were significant practical difficulties (discussed in 3.2 below) in assembling information that would help understand the nature of the constraints on the girls attending the schools in which TEGINT is working. However, the list signals our concern to situate the baseline studies within wider processes of global, national and local social change. While all these forces press down on the girls we are concerned with, our conception indicates they also have some spaces

and opportunities to articulate views and take action. In conducting the research we hoped to document how girls worked with others to bring about change, and what changes in the power dynamics they feel they can make. We were also interested to document whether girls in particular circumstances were better able than others to articulate their aspirations for education.

Combined with this central focus on girls and empowerment is the importance of documenting the numbers of males and females in schools (WID) and an acknowledgement of the gendered power relations in which girls live their lives (GAD), which might manifest themselves in the views of important actors – teachers, head teachers, village administrative officers and school management committees (SMCs) or other school level governance structures (PTAs, School Committees etc). The baseline study, concerned with investigating structural constraints and actions for change, was developed to map some of the terrain signalled by the TEGINT Hypothesis with its concern to identify diverse individuals and organisations whose actions impact on girls' education and strategic actions at multiple levels to explicitly address gender discrimination.

3. The research process

3.1 Phases of the Baseline Study

The collection and analysis of data for the Baseline Study was a protracted process and has raised questions about the ways in which research is conceptualised and conducted in an ambitious multi-country project of this kind. The project team has reflected on some of the different epistemological frameworks in play and the complexity of negotiating across these (Unterhalter, Lazier, Ononamadu, Heslop, 2009) raising some pertinent questions for the project Hypothesis, which we look at in the discussion of methodological issues (3.2) and return to in the concluding discussion of the report (Section 5). Here, we outline the phases of work on the Baseline and the different research teams involved.

Initial meetings of the TEGINT project partnership in October 2007 envisaged a conventional research design with a pilot study undertaken in selected schools in each district in Tanzania and in each state in Nigeria. The pilot study was envisaged as a process of introducing the project and its research component to communities and trialling qualitative and quantitative research instruments. Research institutes in Tanzania and Nigeria worked with CAPP, Maarifa and the IoE to develop the pilot study instruments, test them and write up findings as part of the project inception phase. The preliminary report of the pilot study was discussed at a project meeting in December 2007 (Maarifa and BERE, 2007; IDR, 2007).

When the full pilot study reports were reviewed in January 2008 (Maarifa and BERE, 2008a; IDR 2008) it was evident that many assumptions made about the phases of work had to be revisited. Different epistemologies and approaches to questions of gender and research had not been sufficiently anticipated or adequately reviewed in initial meetings, but the importance of collecting baseline data in order to assist in establishing a monitoring and evaluation framework and focussing project planning was urgent. It was therefore decided that the research instruments would be radically revised and trimmed back and that no qualitative data would be collected in the

first data sweep, which would be concerned with collecting administrative data from schools and district education offices and would survey school principals, teachers, older girls, village executive officers and school board / SMC members. Research instruments were developed and trialled in Nigeria by CAPP and staff in April 2008. These were adapted and used by researchers co-ordinated by BERE working with Maarifa in Tanzania in May 2008 and a team of consultants with CAPP in Nigeria to collect data in May and June 2008. The nature of the research instruments are outlined in 3.4.

Data collected in Tanzania was analyzed by BERE in discussion with Maarifa and a preliminary report was delivered in November 2008 (Maarifa & BERE, 2008b). In Nigeria the consultants delivered two reports, one based on some analysis and discussions with CAPP in November 2008 and a second based on a review of some administrative data in January 2009 (Bonat & Kezie-Nwoha, 2008; Bonat & Kezie-Nwoha 2009). These reports were discussed at a project team meeting in December 2008 in Nairobi, where the importance of interpreting data in relation to the local contexts emerged as a key issue. Some in-depth discussions on the nature of the different places in which the project was being implemented occurred, as well as the significance of thinking about the relationships between different groups surveyed for the baseline.

An overview report on the baseline studies was written through an iterative process of discussions within the project partnership between May and August 2009 (TEGINT, 2009). This report analysed data bearing in mind context and relationships, exploring some of the issues posed by the conceptual framing, and examining similarities and differences within project sites in each country and between Tanzania and Nigeria. It also reflected on findings from the baseline data in relation to where the TEGINT project might go next and what had been learned about the project Hypothesis. In discussions, members of the project team felt that a number of conclusions should be further substantiated with a small selection

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of qualitative studies. Additional qualitative data was therefore collected in Tanzania in September - October 2009 and in Nigeria in February - March 2010, with analysis in 2010. Findings from all three sweeps of data collection were presented at workshops in Arusha in January 2011 and in Abuja in April 2011, at which draft reports articulating key findings and recommendations were reviewed by project teams.

3.2 Methodological issues

The TEGINT conceptual gender framework (2.3) was used to design the baseline study, but the practicalities of collecting and analysing the data to explore all the issues highlighted in this framing were considerable. The framework places girls at the centre of concern, but the pilot baseline reports revealed how difficult it was for research teams to gather in-depth information on girls' views. Researchers often did not come from the locale in which they were collecting data, had only cursory introduction to the research design, and were making brief visits to schools as part of a larger exercise in data collection. A decision was therefore taken for the main phase of the baseline to collect girls' views through a survey of older girls. Subsequent discussion led to a decision to collect some qualitative data in only a few research sites in the third sweep in order to gain greater insight into some aspects of girls' perceptions of education and their social relationships, with a stress on looking at poverty and questions of violence.

A survey is a very limited instrument with which to consider the views of girls on complex issues, but in the early stages of the project the need for 'a quick picture' overrode concerns with understanding particular cases and contexts in greater depth. The supplementary qualitative discussions with girls, boys, mothers and fathers in a small number of schools provided useful additional insight on issues that were puzzling from the survey – notably understandings of poverty, gender and violence, and whether different forms of school governance structures might be associated with different forms of support to gender equality.

The conceptual framing identified a range of issues related to political economy, history, the nature

of education provision, socio-cultural dynamics, livelihoods and health that might constrain or increase girls' capabilities and have a bearing on the ways in which they expressed their aspirations and critical reflection. In both countries socio-economic data was available from official sources and some research literature meant some sources on context were available. However, this was patchy with more information on some districts / states than others. Given these gaps the project drew on the local knowledge of team members to generate profiles of the various districts / states in which the data was to be analysed, which supplemented published information. This method of assembling contextual information has limitations: we made some assessments based on partial and sometimes anecdotal accounts. Brief details relating to the geographical areas in which the project is working in Tanzania and Nigeria is presented in Section 4.

Different assessments have been made of the salience of socio-cultural dynamics in Nigeria and Tanzania and their usefulness in interpreting questions concerning gender and schooling. In Nigeria CAPP considered the gender dynamics of social exclusion and ethnicity an important area to explore; in Tanzania, some members of the research team were more circumspect about what insight a socio-cultural analysis of the data might yield. It was argued that due to the extent and depth of contact between diverse ethnic groups, and the influence of dominant foreign cultures (including Arabic and European), reference to ethnic specificities is of limited use. For example, saying that Kichagga speakers are more entrepreneurial than Kimaasai or Kimeru speakers, all of whom live side by side in Arusha Municipality, was considered extremely problematic. Thus in making cross-country comparisons we have tried to avoid a stress on ethnic uniqueness in socio-cultural outlooks.

In order to ascertain gender patterns on enrolment, attendance and progression in schools and key school processes, particularly pupil: teacher ratios, level of teacher qualifications, forms of management, training, social mobilisation, levies charged and classroom conditions, it was intended that the methods used would include collection of school administrative data recorded in registers or files with the local education offices, interviews with head teachers and observations in schools. However, we



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had not taken into account that registers going back to 2002 might not be kept at schools, that research teams might not gain access to local education offices for older registers, data on teachers in post or pupils' examination results, and that there might be difficulties in organising observations in school because schools were not in session on the days some research teams visited. Research teams were thus not able to collect a full data set in all areas. In Nigeria in particular a crisis of data absence in some schools makes tracking project progress difficult in some locales. However, an important complementary process associated with the baseline study was compiling school and district profiles for all the schools in the project, which enabled project staff to see what particular areas of intervention were most appropriate (Heslop et al, 2010).

One key aspect of the social conditions in schools we wished to gain insight into related to girls who had to leave because of pregnancy and incidents of gender-based violence. It was decided that questions about this would be posed to head teachers, village administrative officers and school management committees. We appreciate that bald questions on these issues do not help understand what forms violence against girls might take, or whether some acts are even considered violence. We also appreciate that girls who are pregnant may marry early and thus not be seen as leaving school because of pregnancy. Thus the responses to these questions from the main survey were interpreted with some caution and analysed largely as a means of helping to develop a richer understanding of context

and management processes, not as a tally of where violence or exclusion on the grounds of pregnancy occurs. However, in the follow-up qualitative studies understandings of violence, schooling and exclusion were probed further through separate participatory activities with girls, boys, mothers, fathers, and teachers, which allowed more nuance and depth to emerge in the exploration of these issues.

The major part of data for the main baseline study was collected through interviews on the basis of a checklist of answers. In each school, teachers completed questionnaires. The kind of information gathered through surveys allowed outline views to be collated across all project schools. To contextualize and interpret the findings, the project team spent more than a year on an in-depth process of querying the results and looking at data from a range of different sources, in an attempt to try to draw conclusions with some validity. This process was repeated when data from the qualitative studies was reviewed. This iterative process, which itself expresses aspects of the project's learning questions and emphasis on dialogue and systematic reflection, has developed a more multi-dimensional interpretation of the findings.

A baseline study for a large project of this kind raises the question of surveying control schools. Maarifa and CAPP both expressed the significant difficulty posed by taking researchers to control schools, because the arrival of a researcher would signal to a school that some aspect of project work would be conducted. In addition the research team felt it would be very difficult to quarantine any school from the effects of

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the project and therefore there could be no 'pure' control schools. Instead of control schools, data on enrolment, progression and achievement in schools in which the project intended to work were compared with district / state data averages, although this raised additional issues. In Tanzania and Nigeria schools were included in the project on the basis of District Education Officers' decisions, negotiated with Maarifa and CAPP, which were often based on assessments of schools in the 'hardest to reach' communities, that is locales in which government initiatives were having least success and other NGOs had not been active. The schools in which the project is working are thus often atypical and data drawn from them cannot necessarily be generalised to the district as a whole. However, analysing the data collected from the schools and comparing this with averages for the district / state where possible (notably for enrolment and attendance) shows that in many cases TEGINT is not working in the 'worst' schools in a state / district in terms of administrative data and teacher qualifications (Section 5).

Forms of gender discrimination in relation to schooling in Tanzania and Nigeria are very different. Thus an additional methodological challenge was how to think about collaborations between members of the project partnership working in dissimilar contexts. As discussed more fully in Section 4, the project team's reflections on the different contexts and strategies to be adopted in each country included:

- i) Descriptive comparisons, articulating the nature of the different histories and processes of education change in Nigeria and Tanzania;
- ii) How and why formal policy commitments at national level do and do not translate into conditions that support girls claiming and defending their rights to education;
- iii) How and why locally inflected gender power relations work in conditions of change to support or undermine girls' empowerment through education;
- iv) How and why and with what support girls in different contexts articulate their views about education, empowerment and social change.

The comparative dynamic of the analysis is thus concerned with understanding the conditions for project work in different districts in each country,

exploring how national policy on gender and EFA is being implemented and in what ways it is not, and to consider the dynamics of local campaigning and mobilisation to support girls' education. For research and project teams, understanding a different context is part of developing new perspectives and helping generate discussion about strategies to implement closer to home (Unterhalter et al, 2009; Heslop et al, 2010).

3.3 Managing the Baseline Study

The complexity of conceptualising and managing the baseline study became apparent over the different phases of work. The study was initially conceived as an aid to developing project implementation plans in each country. Research teams worked closely with CAPP and Maarifa with inputs from the team at ActionAid, but no group took overall leadership of the baseline study. In discussions between 2008 and March 2009 different approaches to managing the research were attempted with final Memorandums of Understanding agreed between all teams in July 2009. ActionAid Tanzania and ActionAid Nigeria each took the role of managing the qualitative phase of the baseline study nationally. The final reports prepared in 2010 and 2011 have been reviewed by all team members.

3.4 Research instruments

Eight research instruments were developed for the main phase of the baseline study to collect data at school and village level. These were:

1. School-based records on enrolment, attendance, repetition, progression, exam performance and teachers employed;
2. Observation schedule on school conditions;
3. Interview schedule to be used with older girls (10 from each school) in Class 6 of primary school or Form 3 of secondary school;
4. Interview schedule to be used with head teachers;
5. Interview schedule to be used with principals of teacher training colleges;
6. Interview schedule to be used with village executive officer;
7. Interview schedule to be used with member of the school management committee/school board;
8. Survey to be self completed by teachers.

For instruments fully completed in each country see Appendix 2: national instruments used can be found in the respective country reports Volumes 2 and 3.

For the qualitative phase of the study additional instruments were developed, namely:

1. Focus group with girls and boys in and out of school (separate groups; in Nigeria girls out of school also participated)
 - Meanings of poverty/gender and schooling
 - Recollections of incidents of violence reported and effects on girls' experience of school;
2. Focus group with boys in school
 - Meanings of poverty/gender and schooling
 - Recollections of incidents of violence reported and effects on girls' experience of school;
3. Focus group with parents of the girls (mothers and fathers in separate groups)
 - Meanings of poverty/gender and schooling
 - Views on incidents of violence reported and effects on girls' experience of school
 - Views on how school governance committee deals with questions of gender and schooling;
4. Focus group with teachers (Nigeria only)
 - Meanings of poverty/gender and schooling;
5. Focus group with members of school management committees
 - Views on gender/poverty/schooling
 - History of organization; issues discussed at meetings (in Nigeria these were asked during an interview with one committee member);
6. Interview with school principal
 - Meanings of poverty/gender and schooling
 - Views on incidents of violence reported and effects on girls' experience of school
 - Information on date school established; financial sources; update of administrative data (Tanzania only).

Poverty trees were used as a basis for discussions around poverty. Participants drew and discussed causes or underlying factors of poverty (roots) and forms or manifestations of poverty (branches) to help understand perceptions by different groups in different locations. Participants' perspectives on violence

and school governance were further elicited through guided discussions.

The purpose of each research instrument in relation to project aim, objectives and learning questions and the aims of the baseline study is summarised in Appendix 3.

In Nigeria the quantitative baseline instruments were discussed, refined and trialled by teams comprising CAPP and researchers from the IoE in 2008. These were then used in the field by consultants employed to complete the study. In 2009 additional data on exam results and teacher qualifications were collected by CAPP in the course of day-to-day project work. Instruments for qualitative data collection developed in discussion by the whole project team at a meeting in Abuja in July 2009. These instruments were trialled and data was collected by research teams in late 2009. In Tanzania the instruments were discussed, refined and trialled by teams comprising Maarifa, BERE, and researchers from IoE. They were used in the field by researchers co-ordinated by BERE. The main phase of data collection took place in 2008. The additional qualitative data was collected by BERE in October and November 2009 on the basis of the instruments developed by the project team in July 2009.

With local adaptations, for the names of particular officers or bodies, the same instruments were used with the same substantive intention in both countries. As discussed above, many fewer administrative records were available in Nigeria. Some research teams also gave more attention to some instruments than others. This has meant that not all findings can be simply compared across countries, issues to which we return in Section 4.

3.5 The research process in Tanzania

Data for the main survey component of the study was collected from the 57 schools in which TEGINT works (47 primary schools and 10 junior secondary schools) in six districts. Some administrative data was collected from all schools. Almost all schools had enrolment and attendance data available, but less than two-thirds were able to produce data on attainment. Survey data based on interviews and questionnaires was collected in all schools (Table 1).

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Table 1: Number of Tanzanian schools in which data were collected

		Arusha Municipal	Monduli	Moshi Rural	Hai	Babati	Mbulu	Total
Administrative data	Pri	7	7	8	9	7	8	46
	Sec	1	2	2	0	3	2	10
	All	8	9	10	9	10	10	56
Enrolment 2008	Pri	7	6	8	8	7	8	44
	Sec	1	2	2	0	3	2	10
	All	8	8	10	8	10	10	54
Enrolment and Attendance 2008	Pri	7	6	8	8	7	8	44
	Sec	0	2	1	0	2	2	7
	All	7	8	9	8	9	10	51
Pass rate data 2008	Pri	6	6	5	5	6	5	33
	Sec	0	1	0	0	1	2	4
	All	6	7	5	6	7	7	37
Survey data	Pri	7	7	8	9	7	8	46
	Sec	1	2	2	0	3	2	10
	All	8	9	10	9	10	10	56

In total, data was collected from 1,053 teachers, older girls, Principals, SBMC/PTA and Village Heads across six districts (153 to 200 respondents per district; Appendix 2). 25 enumerators worked under the direction of BERE, supported by staff from Maarifa.

In the qualitative phase of the study in 2009, data was collected from two to three schools in each district selected on the basis of analysis of data from the main baseline survey. It was intended that FGDs would be held in:

- (i) Schools where the largest proportion of girls reported poverty as a major obstacle, and with lowest gender profile;
- (ii) All schools where violence was reported; and
- (iii) Schools with biggest discrepancy in girls' aspirations and results (proportion of girls who sat exams and who passed all exams).

Researchers visited 14 schools across six districts, six in urban and eight in rural areas. For most schools research officers reported a full set of FGD discussions with the five intended groups (female

pupils, male pupils, female parents, male parents and School Committee members) along with the number of participants in each FGD. However data from all sites was not fully reported (Appendix 4); data from Moshi Rural was treated as indicative of views expressed, rather than as a full account of the FGD.

3.6 The research process in Nigeria

In Nigeria data was collected in 72 schools in which TEGINT works (35 primary schools and 37 junior secondary schools) in eight states. Data collection was uneven: some administrative data was collected in all schools, but only one-third of schools had both enrolment and attendance data (Table 2). No attendance data was available at junior secondary schools, and no pass rate data was available at primary schools. It was not possible to collect data on gender and changing patterns of enrolment and attendance back to 2002. Data on teachers employed in the school was not available in all schools.

Survey data based on interviews and self-completed questionnaires (at least from some sets of participants) was collected in all schools. Over the period in which data was being collected the main teachers' union was either on strike or teachers were just returning to work after the strike. In these conditions not all observations on the instrument could be made. Notably across the sample observations on textbook distribution could not be made nor could the length

of time children were inside classrooms be noted for comparisons. A weakness of the instrument was that enumerators were not asked to comment whether teachers were or had recently been on strike, thus in analyzing the data it was impossible to work out whether observations had not been made due to enumerator oversights or because no teachers were at the school.

Table 2: Number of Nigerian schools in which data were collected

		Bauchi	FCT	Gombe	Kaduna	Katsina	Nasarawa	Niger	Plateau	Total
Administrative data	Pri	6	2	6	6	6	2	4	3	35
	JSS	6	2	6	6	7	2	4	4	37
	All	12	4	12	12	13	4	8	7	72
Enrolment 2008	Pri	5	2	6	4	6	2	3	1	29
	JSS	4	2	2	6	4	0	2	3	23
	All	9	4	8	10	10	2	5	4	52
Enrolment & Attendance 2008	Pri	3	2	6	4	6	1	1	1	24
	JSS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	All	3	2	6	4	6	1	1	1	24
Pass rate data 2008	Pri	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	JSS	5	2	3	6	1	2	2	3	24
	All	5	2	3	6	1	2	2	3	24
Survey data	Pri	6	2	6	6	6	2	4	3	35
	JSS	6	2	6	6	7	2	4	4	37
	All	12	4	12	12	13	4	8	7	72

In total data was collected from 1,735 respondents (163 to 479 respondents per state; Appendix 2). Enumerators worked under the direction of Dr Bonat and Kezie-Nwoha supported by CAPP staff.

In the qualitative phase the study a team under the direction of Dr. Fatima Adamu of Usman Danfodio University led the collection of data from one to three schools in each state. Eight primary and eight JSS in total participated (Appendix 4).

3.7 Analysis

Data collected for the main baseline study was entered into SPSS software by the local research teams. Preliminary presentations of this material were made in reports prepared for CAPP and Maarifa in late 2008 (Maarifa & BERE, 2008b; Bonat and Kezie-Nwoha, 2008) and a workshop in 2009 posed questions about trends that could emerge if data from the baseline study was further disaggregated or examined in relation to a range of variables. This further analysis was carried out by researchers at the IOE in March - April

SECTION 3



PHOTO: CHRIS MORGAN/GCE/ACTIONAID

2009. Findings were discussed within the project team, in the process of which further refinements of analysis and interpretation were developed. The development of school profiles gave a more refined view of what was happening in specific schools. The data from the final phase of qualitative data collection refined the analysis developed through these multi-layered discussions.

There has been considerable discussion in the project team regarding the unit of analysis. While country-level discussion is too broad-brush stroke, school-level discussion brings too many detailed local variables into play. We consequently agreed to organize around contextualized considerations of the different districts in Tanzania and states in Nigeria in which the project operates, cognisant that each school in a particular district / state will have different characteristics and be located in communities with particular histories. In addition, we undertook a rural/urban analysis of the data, whereby schools were classified into rural, peri-urban or urban categories by CAPP and Maarifa staff. It was deemed important to look at the characteristics of communities by their distance from a main road and access to services: communities classified as urban had common features including good provision of water and electricity and access to health and other services, whilst those classified as rural were

the furthest from a main road in remote locations with poor infrastructure and services.

The creation of three summary variables has been an important part of the data analysis. These variables grouped data to give summary measures for each school: one looking at gender parity in girls' opportunities and outcomes (the 'gender profile score'), one looking at teacher qualifications (the 'teacher profile score') and one looking at the level of activity of school management on girls' education (the 'gender management profile score'). This enabled analysts to review overarching patterns between different inputs and outcomes for girls. The gender profile score was constructed to gain a summary measure of outcomes that would capture the extent to which each school was succeeding in supporting girls' education. A series of key variables (including enrolment, attendance, progression, repetition, completion and attainment, weighted in favour of attainment and completion) were grouped together and transformed into an overarching school 'score' on gender and education. The schools were then ranked and grouped into three bands: 1) below average performance; 2) average performance; and 3) above average performance. The same approach was used to develop the teacher profile and gender management profile scores. (More detail on how the indicators were constructed is in Appendix 5.)

4. Local contexts: six districts in Tanzania and eight states in Nigeria

The two country reports (Volumes 2 and 3) contain detailed background information on the six districts in northern Tanzania and eight states in northern Nigeria in which TEGINT works, which this section summarises noting some important features at state and district level that have a bearing on the comparative analysis of the findings.

Some of the schools are located in a district / state that has significantly higher levels of aggregate wealth and education than all the other locales. Arusha Municipal district in Tanzania and FCT (Federal Capital Territory) state in Nigeria both contain cities, which are transport hubs, the site of many possible education and employment opportunities, and equally places of significant wealth inequalities. Some women have active leadership roles, for example in churches. FCT has the highest women's literacy rates of the eight states in which TEGINT works and the lowest gender gaps in primary and secondary school enrolment. In Arusha Municipal and FCT, TEGINT is working in schools serving poor communities, but the relationship between these poor communities and the large urban concentrations nearby provides a very particular context for girls' education analyses.

Particular locales in each country have also been associated with a considerable focus on girls' education over some decades. In Moshi Rural and Hai districts in the Kilimanjaro region of Tanzania there has been a long history of establishing schools and investing money from agriculture into education, including education for girls. There is also a university in Moshi Rural. While the schools in which TEGINT is working, for reasons associated with local socio-economic and political processes, have not seen as much expansion of opportunities as other schools in these districts, they are nonetheless located in communities with relatively high levels of education and economic activity associated with the production

of cash crops. In the North-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria, Katsina state saw a policy focus on girls' education under a previous governor, the late President Yar'Adua, and many schools have good facilities and a relatively high number of female teachers. Kaduna state is the location of many universities and has, on aggregate, higher levels of adult literacy than several other states in which the project is working.

In each country there were also particular locales that were associated with considerable lack of provision, limited roads, and communities that had not historically educated girls and women, for reasons associated with household economy, marriage relationships between communities, and limited access to schools. In Tanzania, Monduli, Babati and Mbulu districts all had features of this social distance from education for girls; there are relatively high levels of poverty, poor infrastructure and services. Drop out linked pastoralism, particularly early marriage and cattle herding are of concern, in Mbulu and particularly in Babati where 70% of children are engaged in labour (National Bureau of Statistics, 2002). In Nigeria, Bauchi and Gombe state were associated with these processes that can limit access and participation in education for girls; in both states, livelihoods depend on agriculture which has been hampered by drought and both states have some high levels of poverty, low levels of women's literacy and teacher qualifications and the lowest primary school enrolment rates.

5. Findings

The findings from the research are organised in response to the seven areas of the baseline study concerned with understanding obstacles to girls' education, the conditions in schools in which TEGINT is working, how these stand in comparison to other schools in districts or states, teacher qualifications and conditions, the fees school charge, the work of school management committees, and the relationship between schools and communities.

5.1 Obstacles to girls' education

In both country contexts, the level of education girls in school in 2008 wished to achieve was high, with the majority hoping to reach tertiary education and a minority aiming for secondary education (Table 3). The reasons girls gave for wanting to reach these levels of education varied. A large majority (86%) of girls in Tanzania said their primary motivation was employment, but they were not specific about the type of work. Girls in Nigeria were more likely to state a range of reasons, including employment, but also gaining a profession, and a larger proportion were

concerned with gaining recognition or being a role model than the girls surveyed in Tanzania. It may be that in Tanzania, where large numbers of girls complete primary schooling but there are limits on remaining in secondary school or accessing the professional labour market, a smaller proportion of girls see this as a possibility. Where TEGINT works in Nigeria, few women take professional positions or gain recognition, so it may be that girls in their final year of primary schooling have very wide ambitions for what they can achieve.

Table 3: Girls' educational aspirations

		% responding Tanzania	% responding Nigeria
Level of education they wish to achieve	Primary	0	1
	Secondary	13	10
	Tertiary/University	87	90
Reason	Profession	41	63
	Employment	86	64
	Recognition	11	29
	Role Model	23	30

Girls articulate a wide range of obstacles they face to schooling (Table 4). Girls in Tanzania were more likely to talk about early pregnancy as an obstacle to schooling than those in Nigeria, which may be linked to a higher acceptability and prevalence of sexual relations and pregnancy outside of marriage in Northern Tanzania and earlier marriage for girls in Northern Nigeria (DHS Nigeria 2009; DHS Tanzania 2010). Girls surveyed in Nigeria were more

likely to consider early marriage than pregnancy as a significant reason for dropping out of school. Additionally, more girls in Nigeria identified distance from school, ill health and parents withdrawing them from school as obstacles than girls in Tanzania. Overall, girls in Nigeria were more likely to cite a range of obstacles they face in achieving their desired level of education, even though the aspirations of girls across the two country contexts are similar.

Table 4: Girls' views on the obstacles that will prevent them from achieving their desired level of education

	Tanzania (%)	Nigeria (%)
Early marriage	35	43
Poverty	61	70
Parents withdraw from school	20	38
Old for class	4	9
Lack of facilities	31	34
Distance from school	7	21
Ill health	28	44
Pregnancy	54	32

In both countries it was evident that girls living in more remote areas with the highest poverty levels, poorest facilities, longest distances to school and more entrenched practices of early marriage are the least likely to articulate those problems. Thus in Tanzania only 4-7% of girls attending schools in Mbulu, Babati and Monduli districts cited distance to school as a problem, even though in these areas girls walk many kilometres to school; while 25% of girls attending schools in Arusha district, many of which are in urban or peri-urban locations with shorter distances to school, mentioned distance as a barrier to attending school. Similarly, in Nigeria only 5% of girls surveyed in Bauchi and 9% surveyed in Gombe states mentioned distance to school as a problem, compared with 48% in Katsina and 41% in Kaduna, where there are overall a relatively good number of schools.

Similar trends can be seen in girls' comments on poverty. Girls living in the richest areas (FCT and Arusha) were much more likely to cite poverty as a barrier to school than girls living in the poorest areas (only 40% of girls mentioned poverty in Mbulu and 41% in Bauchi). This leads us to conclude that in areas where facilities are bad for everyone girls adapt their preferences downward; however, where they

can see more opportunities for some other children, but not themselves, they are more likely to articulate a wider range of problems. Relative rather than absolute poverty appears more implicated in a wider range of claims to rights (further discussion in TEGINT, 2011a; TEGINT, 2011b, Unterhalter, 2011 and Unterhalter, Heslop, and Marphatia, 2011).

A range of solutions to overcome obstacles to schooling were more frequently articulated by girls attending schools in Nigeria than Tanzania (Table 5). Interestingly, sponsorship (a shorter-term, less sustainable solution to the financial barriers to schooling) is the most cited solution by girls in Northern Tanzania, with only one in five suggesting the more political solution of abolishing fees and levies. The responses of girls in Nigeria, on the other hand, are much more evenly spread across different approaches, which chime with the way girls and others in project communities talked about poverty in focus group discussions. Whilst those participating in the study in Tanzania attributed poverty primarily to endogenous factors (such as laziness, drunkenness) those in Nigeria articulated a wide range of reasons including endogenous and exogenous factors such as drought, lack of jobs, poor roads and bad governance.

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Table 5: Girls' views on how to overcome obstacles to attaining their desired level of education

	Tanzania (%)	Nigeria (%)
Sponsorship	56	87
Provision of facilities	38	59
Stop early marriage	34	67
Abolish fees and levies	20	65
Family Life Education	40	62
Enlightenment of parents	42	72

In both countries a strikingly higher proportion of girls living in areas of relative inequality, such as Arusha and Moshi Rural and FCT, Nassarawa and Plateau cite the more political approach - abolishing fees and levies – compared to very low proportions of girls living in areas of absolute inequality, such as Monduli and Mbulu districts and Bauchi state. This suggests that whether or not girls are able to give voice to both problems and solutions depends on particular contextual features of the communities in which they live, and the extent to which more critical views may or may not be tolerated. Below we discuss a number of features of school organisation that seem to be associated with girls' capacity to speak up and outline valued capabilities and the difficulties in attaining them. ◻

5.2 Is TEGINT working in the most gender inequitable schools?

When the average enrolment of girls and boys in the schools in which TEGINT is working are compared with national averages it is clear that in Tanzania the project is working in schools with a slightly lower gender parity index (GPI) than the national average, while in Nigeria the average GPI for enrolments in the schools in which the project is working is notably worse than the national average GPI for enrolments. With regard to local averages, the schools in which TEGINT is working have better GPIs for enrolment than some district or state averages. TEGINT is not therefore, in terms of the GPI of enrolments, necessarily working in schools where gendered exclusions are worst.

Table 6: Gender parity in enrolment in TEGINT primary schools

	TEGINT schools			National
	Average number of girls enrolled in primary	Average number of boys enrolled in primary	Gender parity 2008	National GPI enrolment
Tanzania	319	326	0.98	1.00
Nigeria	380	455	0.80	0.84

Considering the GPI for exam performance (the proportion of girls enrolled in the final year of the basic education phase who pass the public examination) in the schools in which the project works, in Tanzania there is near gender parity, while in Nigeria a lower proportion of girls compared to boys pass exams.

However girls' and boys' actual pass rates are much higher in the schools in which the project is working in Nigeria compared to Tanzania, possibly because only girls who are very well supported to remain in school finish the JSS phase.

Table 7: Proportion enrolled in final year passing exams (TEGINT schools)

	TEGINT schools			National
	Average number of girls enrolled in primary	Average number of boys enrolled in primary	Gender parity 2008 ¹	National GPI enrolment
Tanzania	319	326	0.98	1.00²
Nigeria	380	455	0.80	0.84³

¹ GPI is gender parity index, girls expressed as a proportion of boys. If the GPI is less than 1 there are more boys than girls. If it is higher than 1 there are more girls than boys

² Calculated from MoEVT, 2009. Data from 2008.

³ Source: UBEC 2008. Data from 2006

The gender profile brought together indicators associated with gender in enrolment, attendance, progression and completion (Appendix 5A). There is not a clear relationship between a school's rurality and gendered school outcomes although in both countries rural schools are slightly more likely to fall into the 'below average' gender profile. In the schools in Northern Tanzania there was a very slightly larger proportion of rural schools in the below average

gender profile category than in Northern Nigeria. Nigeria primary schools in urban and rural areas are more likely to have better gender outcomes, as measured by the gender profile, than JSS schools. Interestingly the 'urban-rural' pattern is not consistent over primary and secondary schools in Nigeria. Urban primary schools are much more likely to have better outcomes for girls, whilst urban JSS are slightly more likely to fall into the 'below average' category.

Table 8: School gender profiles, by urban-rural character

	Area	Below average %	Average %	Above average %
Tanzania	Urban	30	35	35
	Rural	37	33	30
	All schools	33	33	33
Nigeria	Urban	31	31	38
	Rural	34	34	32
	All schools	33	33	33

5.3 Gender profiles and girls' perspectives on schooling

The gender profile scores for each of the schools in which TEGINT works were analysed to examine how gender conditions in schools, as established by this summary measure, might be associated with a range of perspectives about schooling and social change. Across both countries in schools with high gender profiles, where girls do the best relative to boys in terms of enrolment, attendance and completion, girls

were more likely to speak out about the problems they face, especially in Nigeria. Table 9 distils the range of factors girls cite as obstacles to completing schooling. In both countries girls are more likely to cite poverty in schools with above average gender profiles, and less likely to note this in schools with below average gender profiles, and that trend is more marked in Nigeria. Girls in above average gender profile schools are much more likely to mention lack of facilities than girls in below average gender profile schools, and the gap is much more dramatic in Tanzania than in Nigeria.

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Table 9: Girls' views on the obstacles that will prevent them from achieving their desired level of education by school gender profile performance

	Gender profile of school					
	% who mentioned Tanzania			% who mentioned Nigeria		
	Below average	Average	Above average	Below average	Average	Above average
Early marriage	65	93	69	40	44	42
Poverty	82	100	88	60	72	73
Parents withdraw from school	24	29	19	29	39	40
Old for class	29	0	6	2	14	13
Lack of facilities	12	36	31	27	33	38
Distance from school	29	36	19	17	23	21
Ill health	47	29	38	31	40	60
Pregnancy	41	93	69	30	30	36

With respect to the range of solutions offered, in schools in Nigeria there is a clear trend with a somewhat larger proportion of girls able to offer a wider range of solutions, and much more likely to identify school fees and the disjuncture of school and family in schools with above average gender profiles than those below average.

Table 10: Girls' views on how to overcome obstacles to attaining their desired level of education, by school gender profile

	Nigeria: Gender profile % who mentioned		
	Below average	Average	Above average
Sponsorship	67	73	79
Provision of facilities	49	41	52
Stop early marriage	58	49	61
Abolish fees and levies	52	51	68
Family Life Education	49	42	68
Enlightenment of parents	48	58	69

5.4 Teacher conditions and support to girls' schooling

Employing more female teachers has long been associated with enhanced support to girls to enrol and complete school and have appropriate role models. In Tanzania there are twice the number of women as men on the teaching staff in the schools in which

TEGINT is working, while in Nigeria there are fewer women than men overall, but this masks differences between primary and JSS (Table 11). There are more women than men in primary schools, but more than twice as many men as women in JSS in the schools in Nigeria. In both countries the average proportion of women teachers is higher in the schools in which TEGINT works than in schools nationally.

Table 11: Gender parity in teaching staff profiles by state, 2008

	Tanzania	Nigeria		
		Primary	JSS	All schools
GPI teachers: TEGINT schools	2.02	1.19	0.42	0.82
GPI teachers: National data	1.02⁶	0.88⁷		

⁶ Taken from BEST 2008 data, MoEVT, 2009, p. 18

⁷ Taken from UBEC 2008

The ratio of pupils to teachers (PTR) was relatively high in all schools (Table 12). The highest observed was 66:1 in Katsina primary schools in Nigeria and 51:1 in Babati schools in Tanzania. Overall PTRs are higher in the TEGINT schools in Tanzania, possibly because of the very concerted push for UPE over the last ten years. Whilst in Tanzania lower PTRs and

more female teachers seem to be associated with better school gender profiles, the opposite seems to be true in Nigeria, where schools that are in the higher gender profile band have relatively large classes and more male teachers, and more women are teaching in schools in the lower gender profile band.

Table 12: Key teaching indicators and school gender profiles

School gender profiles	Ratio of pupils to teachers		Number of female to male teachers	
	Nigeria	Tanzania	Nigeria	Tanzania
Below average	30:1	54:1	1.22	1.04
Average	26:1	53:1	0.69	2.68
Above average	47:1	46:1	0.69	2.85
Total	36:1	51:1	0.82	2.20

In Nigeria the majority (77%) of female teachers in the schools in which TEGINT is working are qualified to the national minimum standard (Table 13). In Tanzania female teachers with this level of qualification in the project schools comprise just over one third (34%). Since the baseline study great strides have been

reported in Tanzania in upgrading teachers to this minimum policy standard, and a similar initiative has been ongoing in Nigeria. In project-associated schools in both countries there is approximate gender parity in teacher qualifications.

Table 13: Teacher qualifications

Teachers qualified to national minimum standard	% women	% men
Tanzania (Certificate IIIA and above)	34	36
Nigeria (NCE qualification and above)	77	77

Girls' ability to speak out about the conditions that are likely to hinder their education is associated with the level of teacher qualifications (Table 14). In schools with above average teacher qualifications, more girls mentioned early marriage and pregnancy as obstacles to their education and they tended to mention a wider range of obstacles overall.

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Table 14: Girls' views on the obstacles that will prevent them from achieving their desired level of education, by teacher qualification profile

	Teacher qualifications within school					
	% who mentioned Tanzania			% who mentioned Nigeria		
	Below average	Average	Above average	Below average	Average	Above average
Early marriage	58	63	77	39	42	48
Poverty	19	17	31	59	71	76
Parents withdraw from school	3	3	9	33	32	45
Old for class	34	30	34	4	13	9
Lack of facilities	5	1	17	15	37	42
Distance from school	22	30	41	10	15	32
Ill health	56	52	69	29	52	49
Pregnancy	58	63	77	22	29	41

Interpreting this trend we cannot draw conclusions regarding whether teachers who have more education and training are able to support girls to be more aware of the obstacles they face, and therefore speak up more to claim their rights, or whether girls who have this insight, from the views of their parents or communities, tend to attend schools where teachers are better qualified.

5.5 School funding

Basic education is nominally free in Nigeria and

Tanzania, yet data demonstrates that in reality a wide range of levies are charged to families, which constitutes a significant obstacle to schooling. The patterns of school funding differ: in Nigeria funds for schools are allocated through Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) and no data was collected at school level on the amounts received; in Tanzania there is more government funding per pupil in the schools that do relatively worse for girls. This cannot only be due to the fact that more girls tend to be enrolled in these schools, as the mean number of pupils enrolled in schools in the medium gender profile band is higher (Table 15).

Table 15: Average school income by gender band - Tanzania⁸

School gender profile score band 2008	Total school income (Tsh)	Mean number of pupils per school	Income per pupil (Tsh)
Low	4,903,934	646	7591
Medium	5,206,548	788	6607
High	2,726,116	508	5366
Total	4,175,160	644	6483

⁸ No school income data available for Nigeria

Data was collected on the levies charged by school committees or PTAs. A great deal of variation across schools, districts and states was observed in terms of the amount of levies charged and for what. In Nigeria the most frequently charged levies were for the PTA, sports, health and examinations; in Tanzania the most frequently charged levies were for examinations, report cards, security and food. The relationship between levies charged and gender parity at schools differs across the schools. In Tanzania schools with higher gender profiles charge the highest levies whilst the opposite is true in Nigerian primary schools. In JSS there is not such a clear pattern.

It may be that the schools doing the best for girls in Northern Tanzania are getting insufficient funding and are supplementing income by charging high levies (possibly reflecting comparatively more wealthy areas). In Nigeria school funding is highly politicised, with

widespread corruption, and some schools receive more funds as a result of political patronage. It may be that schools in the higher gender profile band in Northern Nigeria are schools attended by children of better connected parents and that this relative social capital and affluence is reflected in more resources from government and less need to charge levies; children whose parents are poorer in social capital are attending schools with lower gender profiles. An explicit linkage was made by girls in Nigeria particularly between inability to pay levies and drop out. They described feeling shame at being pointed at or beaten for not paying charges or having the right equipment and missing school or coming late in attempts to avoid humiliation. Girls described missing school for a few days to go and earn enough money to make the payments required, illustrating that it is sometimes not parents but girls themselves who struggle to find the money for levies.

Table 16: Average levies charged by gender band

School gender profile score band 2008	Primary schools Tanzania (Tsh)			Primary schools JSS Nigeria (Naira)			Nigeria (Naira)		
	Total levies charged	Mean no. pupils per school	Levies per pupil	Total levies charged	Mean no. pupils per school	Levies per pupil	Total levies charged Mean no.	pupils per school	Levies per pupil
Low	390,523	646	605	545	451	1.21	633	825	0.77
Medium	502,112	788	637	40	1030	0.04	388	823	0.47
High	598,397	508	1178	97	755	0.13	496	511	0.97
Total	501,963	644	779	170	835	0.20	525	770	0.68

5.6 The work of School Management Committees

In all the schools in which the project is working women comprise a minority of members on school committees. This is particularly the case in Nigeria and especially on SBMCs, many of which have no female members at all. In Tanzania SMCs are part of the decentralised education governance structures and have a clear mandate and their gender composition seems to have an important impact. There is a much larger presence of women on school committees in schools with high gender profiles in Tanzania, and a very small presence of women in the schools with low

gender profiles (Table 17). In Nigeria there may be a relationship but it is less clear. Many SBMCs were not actually functional, although PTAs, which do not have the same governance responsibilities, are more active. There are more women on PTAs in schools with higher gender profiles, but the trend is not as marked or as clear as in Tanzania. This all indicates that, when committees are functioning, women have a positive effect on school management for girls' education but how and why this happens merits further investigation.

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Table 17: Gender composition of school committees, by school gender profile

	Female: Male ratio (GPI)	
	Tanzania	Nigeria
Below average	0.55	0.39
Average	0.64	0.26
Above average	0.83	0.51
All schools	0.65	0.25⁹

⁹ PTA ratio is 0.52; SBMC ratio is 0.03

The gender management profile was a composite variable (Appendix 5E) constructed to analyse the range of actions associated with training for teachers and SMCs on gender and HIV and AIDS, and the extent to which it was practiced, schools did outreach on inclusion, and monitoring on

enrolments, performance and budgeting. Overall school management committees are less active in Nigeria than Tanzania for taking action on gender. The least active school committees, those with the lowest gender management profiles, are concentrated in rural areas in both Nigeria and Tanzania (Table 18).

Table 18: Gender management profiles, by urban-rural characteristic

		Below average %	Average %	Above average%
Tanzania	Urban	19	38	43
Tanzania	Rural	37	30	33
Nigeria	Urban	30	20	50
Nigeria	Rural	47	22	31

There is an association between gender management profile and gender profile in Tanzania, although the nature of the relationship is not clear. In urban schools in which TEGINT works schools with a high school management profile are more likely to have a high gender profile, but this is not the case in rural schools. When all the TEGINT schools in Tanzania are considered together, there are more schools with medium and high gender profile scores in the medium and high

school gender management profile bands. No clear relationship of this kind is evident in Nigeria, where it appears there are more schools with active school committees and low gender profiles (Table 19). This may be because committees in Nigeria tend not to be clearly established governance structures and are more likely to exist as PTAs developing action linked to local priorities

Table 19: School gender profile score by gender management profile

Banded school gender profile score					
Gender management profile score		Below average	Average	Above average	All schools
Tanzania	Low	35	35	12	27
	Medium	41	18	47	35
	High	24	47	41	37
	Total	100	100	100	100
Nigeria	Low	29	43	33	35
	Medium	29	19	29	25
	High	43	38	38	40
	Total	100	100	100	100

Girls in both countries described multiple forms of violence that they experience on a regular basis. In Tanzania many narratives were of coerced and forced sex by teachers or male pupils, often linked to gendered roles, where girls are particularly vulnerable when going to collect water and carrying out chores in male teachers' houses. Sexual harassment and violence were reported by girls in some states in Nigeria and not in other states. The strict Islamic code of behaviour may account for the low level of reporting. School girls were reportedly lured into exchanging sexual activities to raise money for school, family and personal use. Hostility was expressed by many men and boys to girls being at school, connecting it with girls engaging in transactional sex, losing their religion or becoming too Westernised. Some participants explained that parents sending their daughters to school without pocket money are sending the message to them to find a boyfriend to cover expenses. Hence many girls who are forced or coerced into sex may be blamed for a rape occurring, which may partially explain the lack of effective action taken when violence occurs.

Corporal punishment is entrenched in school systems and was discussed most by girls in Nigeria. It is often connected to poverty, for example in response to non-payment of fees, and lack of uniform or books, and parents and girls complained about this occurring but appeared powerless to stop it. Few school head teachers admitted any type of violence occurring in

their schools. Anecdotes suggest schools under-report and are insufficiently concerned with various forms of gender-based violence.

Responsive or proactive action on violence seemed largely ineffective in both contexts: school committees and head teachers were apparently not well supported or informed. The most common actions taken when violence occurred were warnings, physical punishment, reporting to the SMC (Tanzania) and improving school security (Nigeria), whilst those that are perhaps more in line with official policy (expulsion, suspension, counselling) were least reported actions. Girls talked about cases of sexual violence being dealt with through informal traditional systems that include negotiations and fines to the perpetrator, which may not be in the best interests of the girl. Sexual violence is clearly related to girls' drop out from school. School heads seem to be aware that actions are inadequate, particularly in Tanzania, but linkages are weak between schools and communities and reporting systems are largely ineffective.

5.7 Gender and generation

Analysing the perspectives of different generations and between schools and communities regarding the biggest problems for girls' education reveals notable gaps (Table 20). In Tanzania girls tended to take for granted their work at home and did not cite this as

SECTION 5



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a reason preventing them attending school, but did highlight their fears of early pregnancy and marriage and the effects of poverty. However, pregnancy was not in the top three problems mentioned by adults and early marriage featured only in the problems mentioned by head teachers but not by school committees or village chairs. Girls most commonly cited poverty, which may refer to an inability to pay levies or to contribute to a family income, but poverty was not mentioned by school managers, who drew attention instead to work for the family or household as a key reason girls were kept out of school, thus

displacing the locus of responsibility from the school committee who might levy the household, which might then require the work. In Nigeria similar patterns emerged. Girls most commonly cited poverty, ill health and early marriage as obstacles to their education. Early marriage appears on the most commonly cited reason only by head teachers; ill health does not appear in the top three reasons for any of adult groups. Girls cite poverty, which might be a comment on school levies or family conditions, but adults pointed to the demands of families, not the practices of school, as keeping girls from attending school.

Table 20: Stakeholders’ most commonly cited reasons that girls do not attend school

	Girls	Head teachers	SMCs	Village chair
Tanzania	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Poverty 2. Pregnancy 3. Early marriage 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Required to work outside home 2. Early marriage 3. Not achieving well 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work in the home 2. Care for siblings 3. Income earning/ill health 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Family reasons 2. Work on family farm 3. Household chores
Nigeria	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Poverty 5. Ill health 6. Early marriage 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Required to work at home 5. Early marriage 6. Required to work outside home 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Income earning, contribution to family work 5. Work in the home 6. Parents see educating sons as more important 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Household chores 5. Hawking 6. Family reasons

6. Conclusions

The Baseline studies indicate a number of trends in the schools in which TEGINT is working in Northern Nigeria and Northern Tanzania. Larger proportions of girls are more articulate about the problems they face in their schooling and a range of solutions to these when they are aware of other children accessing better education. In areas where educational expectations are low, girls appear less able to speak up to claim their rights. The level of qualification of teachers has a bearing on whether girls can speak up. In Tanzania there appears to be a clear association between the presence of women on school committees and girls doing well, relative to boys, in progressing and achieving in school, but there is no clear association of this kind in Nigeria, possibly because school committees do not operate as similar governance structures. In both countries, women's presence on school committees is low.

Gender gaps in enrolment, attendance and progression are much wider in Nigeria than in Tanzania, where gender inequality mainly manifests at the point of Standard 7 primary exam performance. In Tanzania more women work as teachers and women have a greater presence on School Management Committees in the project schools than in Nigeria.

There has been extensive work at the national level to develop policies that address gender and education. Both countries have locales with relatively long histories of education provision for females that can be built upon. The rollout of education expansion has been much more successfully delivered to schools in Tanzania than in Nigeria to date. Nonetheless, some critical comment was noted about gender in the delivery of basic services in schooling, health and water. Gender inequities were noted to persist in many areas associated with personal, family or community relations. Decentralised administration in Tanzania has distinct implications for school governance. In Nigeria the complexity of state politics and education provision mean the provision of adequate funds for schooling are tied up with entrenched political networks.

Questions of quality and equality have become a major focus of work on education in Africa (UNESCO, 2010; Tikly and Barrett, forthcoming). In Nigeria this Study highlights that the challenge appears to be to establish a basic infrastructure of well-educated teachers in-post and a norm of girls regularly attending and progressing. In Tanzania, while these institutional elements are in place, data

from the qualitative phase of the research highlights how poverty and gender-based violence remain key equality issues that still need urgent attention. In both countries aspects of gender power relations were evident in how girls understood the exclusions associated with poverty and schooling in very different terms to those who managed their schools. In Tanzania girls were more articulate about the problems they encountered if there was a stronger gender focus in the work of the School Management Committees.

This Baseline Study supports findings from other work on gender and education in Africa. In common with other studies it identifies some processes that appear to 'work' to increase enrolment, maintain attendance and secure progression and success for girls. These processes include employing adequate numbers of well-trained teachers; supporting women to improve their literacy and participate in the work of school committees; mobilising school committees to take a range of actions on gender; and developing good school management strategies to deal with violence against girls.

The qualitative studies reveal gender dynamics in how and whether people can talk about poverty and violence and highlight some concerning issues about girls excluded from school for non-payment of levies, the use of corporal punishment, and the complexities of early marriage. In these findings the data complement other studies on these themes. However, there are a number of features of this research that are unique. The use of summary indicators (gender profile,



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gender management profile and teacher qualification band) to think about the survey data relating to girls' voices has given a unique picture of patterns that hold across both countries and enables the identification of new kinds of constraints associated with lack of information, confidence and generation gaps that have not been commented on in previous studies.

In reviewing some epistemological challenges of the baseline work, it was suggested that there are a number of different ways in which the findings from this baseline can be utilised in the implementation of TEGINT (Unterhalter, Lazier, Ononamadu and Heslop, 2009). Three approaches were identified that point in somewhat different directions regarding **'where we go from here'**:

- i) identifying knowledge that will guide implementation and 'get things done' to achieve gender equality outcomes;
- ii) outlining knowledge that will enhance participation in the project partnership and 'get things discussed', thus enhancing gender equity, (providing the partnership itself takes account of the gender dynamics of discussion);
- iii) opening up analysis to questions and debate regarding gender and social justice in education; this entails actions that 'get engaged with gender politics'.

Recommendations were developed with TEGINT country teams and are country specific (see Appendix 6). However, when looking across the country recommendations they can be grouped into forms of action. Whilst many education initiatives focus on 'getting things done' we argue that this needs to be complemented by dialogue and debate ('getting things discussed') and engaging with the politics of girls' and women's rights and gender. In this light specific recommendations generated for the project in each country associated with **'getting things done'** are:

- i) Improve teacher qualifications and INSET (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- ii) Improve postings/ conditions/ training/ support for women teachers (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- iii) Increase government funding, improve efficiency and financial management capacity to reduce reliance on subsidies (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- iv) Increase number of women on SMCs or SBMCs (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- v) Advocate for sufficient schools close to where children live (Tanzania);
- vi) Improve SBMC capacity to enter and monitor administrative data (Nigeria);
- vii) Build SBMC capacity to monitor teacher quality (Nigeria).

The recommendations associated with **'getting things discussed'** are:

- i) Support girls to ensure they have better knowledge of their rights and conditions in other areas (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- ii) Work with school committees to develop capacity for outreach on gender and EFA (Tanzania);
- iii) Develop teacher insights into the relationship between professional work and girls' rights (Nigeria);
- iv) Develop discussions with teachers and unions on code of ethics (Nigeria).

The recommendations associated with **'getting engaged with girls' and women's rights and gender politics'** are:

- i) Support girls and families to voice demands for better school conditions (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- ii) Provide opportunities for consultation on violence and girls' rights (Tanzania and Nigeria);
- iii) Advocate for government policy to address girls' concerns with poverty, violence, pregnancy, marriage and lack of facilities (Tanzania);
- iv) Advocate to local leadership and parents to overcome obstacles girls experience in schooling (Nigeria);
- vi) Support the development of role models for girls in claiming their rights (Nigeria);
- vi) Support the meaningful participation of children and women in school governance (Nigeria);
- vii) Build trust and communication between schools and communities (Nigeria).



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The combination of these three forms of actions (getting things done; getting things discussed; and getting engaged with gender politics') points to agreement for the TEGINT Hypothesis (page 12) about the importance of collaborative, strategic and sustained work to address gender discrimination. The findings and recommendations that have emerged from the Baseline Study emphasize the significance of attending to human rights and rights-based participatory approaches in efforts to truly transform girls' education.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Researchers and members of the project partnership

Tanzania

<p>BERE, University of Dar es Salaam Dr. Ndibalema Alphonse Professor J. Galabawa Professor Katabaro Dr. Eugenia Kafanabo Loveluck Philip Dr Azevali Lwaitama Dr Alfonse Ndibalema Dr. Rose Upor</p>	<p>Maarifa ni Ufunguo Nicodemus Shauri Eatlawe Silvester Isuja Dunstan Kishekya Israel Laizer Boniface Lyimo Ansila B. Marandu Patricia William Mollel Rhoda Msemo Reuben Shoo Christina Sudi</p>	<p>ActionAid Tanzania Stanley Kachecheba Glory Minja Yitna Tekaligne</p>
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Nigeria

<p>Centre for Population and Development Z. K. A. Bonat</p> <p>Abantu for Development Helen Kezie-Nwoha</p> <p>CompuTec Limited Peter S. Olorunfemi</p> <p>Institute of Development Research, Ahmadu Bello University Dr. Oga Steve Abah</p>	<p>Usman Danfodiyo University Prof. Dejo Abdulrahman Professor Fatima Adamu Dr M.J. Kuna Dr Aisha S. Madawaki</p> <p>ActionAid Nigeria Andrew Mamedu Azuka Mentiki Ifeoma Charles-Monwuba Suwaiba Yakubu-Jubrin</p>	<p>CAPP Ruth Audu Chom Bagu Emeka Ononamadu Yakubu Aliyu Jummai Joseph Optimist Habila Mooreino Diftuffe Kato Adams Emmanueller Jiya Laban Onisimus Aisha Abdullahi</p>
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Institute of Education, University of London

<p>Dr. Sonia Exley Kate Greaney Charley Greenwood Jo Heslop Helen Longlands</p>	<p>Holly McGlynn Veena Meetoo Amy North Charley Nussey Charlie Owen</p>	<p>Dr. Jenny Parkes Helen Poulsen Antonia Simon Moya Wilkie Professor Elaine Unterhalter</p>
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ActionAid International

<p>David Archer Dhianaraj Chetty Victorine Djitrinou</p>	<p>Rebecca Ingram Julie Juma Akanksha Marphatia</p>	<p>Louise Wetheridge</p>
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Appendix 2: Respondents in the quantitative component of the baseline study

Number of respondents in the main phase of data collection by district in Tanzania

	Teachers	Girls	TTC Principal	SMBC/ PTA	Village Heads	Total
Arusha Municipal	64	74	1	7	7	153
Monduli	54	101	1	10	10	176
Moshi Rural	82	100	3	10	5	200
Hai	62	89	0	9	9	169
Babati	44	100	0	10	9	163
Mbulu	72	100	0	10	10	192
Total	378	564	5	56	50	1,053

Number of respondents in the main phase of data collection by state in Nigeria

	Teachers	Girls	TTC Principal	SMBC/ PTA	Village Heads	Total
Bauchi	141	116	12	12	12	293
FCT/Niger	158	119	12	21	8	318
Gombe	90	80	12	11	6	199
Kaduna	145	108	11	9	10	283
Katsina	329	120	12	8	10	479
Plateau/Nassarawa	86	62	7	3	5	163
Total	949	605	66	64	51	1,735

Appendix 3: Study instruments and links to Study aims and project objectives

Instrument	Link to baseline aim	Link to project objective	Link to learning question
School records enrolment, attendance, repetition, progression, exam performance and teachers employed	Outline gender patterns of enrolment, attendance and progression	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education	What changes (in enrolment, attendance, repetition et) are needed to transform education for girls?
Observation school conditions	Identify key gender aspects of school processes in TEGINT schools	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education	What changes are needed to transform education for girls?
Interview schedule older girls	Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively?
Interviews head teachers	Identify key gender aspects of school processes; Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them; assess forms of mobilisation to support girls' access and progression	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education Understand scope of INSET & PRESET modules required	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?
Interviews principals TTCs	Outline gender patterns of enrolment; identify key gender aspects of school processes	Understand scope of INSET & PRESET modules required	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?
Interview village executive officer	Identify gender aspects of school processes; Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them;	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?

Instrument	Link to baseline aim	Link to project objective	Link to learning question
Interview members of school committee	Identify gender aspects of school processes; Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them; Assess forms of mobilisation to support girls' access and progression	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education Understand scope of INSET & PRESET modules required	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?
Self completed teacher survey	Identify gender aspects of school processes; Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them; Assess forms of mobilisation to support girls' access and progression	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education Understand scope of INSET & PRESET modules required	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?
Focus group discussions on poverty trees, causes of violence	Identify key gender aspects of school processes; Analyse views on obstacles on girls' education and how to overcome them	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education	What changes are needed to transform education for girls? What is the importance of working collaboratively?
Interview with head teacher on history of the school governance structure	Assess forms of mobilisation to support girls' access and progression	Building capacity girls, boys, school committees and wider communities to identify and challenge gender discrimination and advance rights to education Facilitating capacity building and ongoing support to School Committees and wider community addressing HIV and AIDS and girls' rights in education and HIV/AIDS. Facilitate the development of legal and policy frameworks, and good practice, that will enhance and protect girls' rights in school.	What is the importance of working collaboratively? How does education management support inclusion and retention girls?

APPENDIX

Appendix 4: Sampling for the qualitative studies

Sampling for qualitative study, Tanzania

District	School code in district	Rural/urban	Total no. of schools	No. of participants in FGD				
				Girls	Boys	Female parents	Male parents	School Committee
Arusha			2					
Primary	2	urban		6	6	4		
Primary	5	rural		7	6	7	6	3
Monduli			2					
Primary	5	rural		7	6	6	5	3
Primary	10	rural		6	6	5	5	3
Moshi			3					
Primary	5	rural		6	6	6	6	6
Primary	7	urban		6	6	6	6	6
Secondary	10	rural		6	6	6	6	6
Hai			2					
Primary	1	urban		6	*	7	4	3
Primary	3	urban		6	6	6	6	2
Babati			2					
Primary	5	rural		*	6	6	4	6
Primary	7	rural		*	6	4	6	*
Mbulu			3					
Primary	2	rural		*	6	6	5	2
Primary	7	urban		6	6	4	3	3
Secondary	9	urban		8	6	2	4	0
Total			14					
Urban			6					
Rural			8					

*No record of numbers participating

Sampling for qualitative study, Nigeria

State	Primary schools	Junior Secondary Schools	Total
Katsina	2	1	3
Bauchi	2	1	3
Kaduna	1	1	2
Gombe	1	1	2
Plateau	0	2	2
Nasarawa	1	0	1
FCT	0	1	1
Niger	1	1	2
Total	8	8	16

Appendix 5: Construction of composite indicators**Appendix 5A: How the school gender profiles were constructed in Tanzania**

Variables included in calculating gender profile scores were as follows:

- Gender parity in girls to boys enrolled in Classes 1-7 in 2008.
- Gender parity in the proportions of girls to boys enrolled in Classes 1-7 in 2008 who were attending on February 15th 2008.
- Gender parity in proportions of girls compared with proportions of boys who progressed from junior primary (Class 1) to senior primary (Class 5) between 2004 and 2008.
- Gender parity in the proportion of Class 7 girls compared with Class 7 boys who were entered for end of primary school exams in 2007.
- Gender parity in the proportions of girls compared with boys entered for Class 7 exams who then passed Class 7 exams in 2007.
- Gender parity in proportions of girls compared with proportions of boys who were retained between Class 1 in 2002 and Class 7 in 2008.
- Gender parity in proportions of girls compared with proportions of boys who progressed from Class 2 (in 2002) and went on to pass Class 7 exams (in 2007).
- Gender parity in proportions of girls compared with proportions of boys in 2008 who were repeating either Class 4 (end of junior primary) or Class 7 (end of senior primary).

A mean was calculated of all the above values for each school, with particular indicators weighted more heavily than others (enrolment indicators and year repeating indicators weighted x 1; attendance, progression and exam entry indicators weighted x 2; indicators related to the passing of exams weighted x 3). Average school scores on gender parity were then calculated. A score of less than one meant worse results for girls than for boys. A score of greater than one meant better results for girls than for boys. Scores were then ranked 1-57 and split into three equal groups (above average, average and below average) for purposes of analysis, particularly in examining relationships with other variables.

Appendix 5B: How the school gender profiles were constructed in Nigeria

The limited school records data available in Nigerian schools meant that the gender profile scores were made up of less variables than in the Tanzania study, and had to be based on some proxy indicators.

The profiles for primary and JSS schools had to be calculated differently based on the data available at the two levels of schooling.

The school gender profile for primary schools combines:

- GPI enrolment. Weighted x1
- GPI attendance. Weighted x2
- GPI progression (the proportion of all girls enrolled in a school who are enrolled in P6 compared with the proportion of all boys enrolled in a school who are enrolled in P6). Weighted x2
- GPI exam entry (proportion of girls enrolled in P6 who are entered for the P6 exam compared with proportion of boys enrolled in P6 who are entered for the P6 exam). Weighted x2.

The school gender profile for JSS schools combines:

- GPI enrolment. Weighted x1
- GPI progression (the proportion of all girls enrolled in JSS1 who are enrolled in JSS 3 compared with the proportion of all boys enrolled in JSS1 who are enrolled in JSS 3). Weighted x2
- GPI Completion (the proportion of all girls enrolled in JSS1 who are entered for the exam in JSS 3 compared with the proportion of all boys enrolled in JSS1 who are entered for the exam in JSS 3). Weighted x2
- GPI Performance (the proportion of girls entered for the JSS3 exam who pass in all subjects compared with the proportion of boys entered for the JSS3 exam who pass in all subjects). Weighted x3.

A mean was calculated of all the above values for each school, with particular indicators weighted more heavily than others (enrolment indicators weighted x 1; attendance, progression and exam entry indicators weighted x 2; indicators related to the passing of exams weighted x 3). Average school scores on gender parity were then calculated. A score of less than one meant worse results for girls than for boys. A score of greater than one meant better results for girls than for boys. Scores were then ranked 1-72 and split into three equal groups (above average, average and below average) for purposes of analysis, particularly in examining relationships with other variables.

Appendix 5C: How teachers' qualification bands were constructed in Tanzania

Each school teacher within the data set was coded as belonging to a particular grade which corresponded with the level of teaching qualification received:

- IIB
- IIIA
- Diploma
- Degree

Here, IIB denotes the most junior teachers and those with degrees are the most senior grade teachers within a school. Each staff member with his/ her requisite grade was weighted according to seniority within a newly constructed variable, i.e.

- IIB x 1
- IIIA x 2
- Diploma x 3
- Degree x 4

Seniority scores for all staff within a school were then summed, giving each school an overarching score for the qualifications and grades of its staff. Fifty-five schools were ranked on the basis of staff grades/ qualifications and, as for other summary variables, were grouped into three bands: 1) below average (20 schools); 2) average (18 schools); and 3) above average (17 schools).

Appendix 5D: How teachers’ qualification bands were constructed in Nigeria

Each school teacher within the data set was coded as belonging to a particular grade which corresponded with the level of teaching qualification received:

- SSCE GCE
- CERT OND
- Diploma
- Degree

Here, SSE GCE denotes the most junior teachers and those with degrees are the most senior grade teachers within a school. Each staff member with his/ her requisite grade was weighted according to seniority within a newly constructed variable, i.e.

- SSCE GCE. Weighted x1
- CERT OND. Weighted x2
- Diploma. Weighted NCE x3
- Degree. Weighted x4 .

Seniority scores for all staff within a school were then summed, giving each school an overarching score for the qualifications and grades of its staff. Schools were ranked on the basis of staff grades/ qualifications and, as for other summary variables, were grouped into three equal sized bands: 1) below average; 2) average; and 3) above average.

Appendix 5E: How the gender management profiles for schools were constructed in Tanzania and Nigeria

Variables included in the overarching management summary variable were drawn from administrative data in addition to interviews with head teachers, teachers, School Committee members and girl pupils themselves. They were as follows:

From administrative data

- Provision of staff training on HIV/AIDS in 2008
- Provision of staff training on sex in 2008

From interviews with head teachers

- Work with the following disadvantaged groups in the community on girls’ education in 2008:
 - Pastoralists/ nomads
 - Families who have children living with a disability
 - Families who cannot pay school fees
 - Girls involved in hawking or household chores
 - Orphans or vulnerable children
 - Children infected with or affected by HIV/ AIDS
 - Children of internally displaced persons or refugees
- Forms of activity carried out with these disadvantaged groups, including house visits, discussions with community leaders, community theatre, support with fees, counselling and advocacy visits to policy makers.
- Specific home visits made to families whose children do not attend school.
- School involvement with government, non-government, trade union and other education campaigning organisations.
- Provision of workshops for teachers, parents and School Committee members on school funding, employing teachers, improving girls’ enrolment and attendance and HIV/ AIDS.
- Mobilisation of girls within the school to carry out community development activities, tree planting and involvement with building or renovating local schools.

From interviews with teachers

- Averages were calculated for all teachers interviewed within each school on the extent to which they had received training on HIV/AIDS and gender and education/ girls' schooling. Data on the extent to which training received had been put into practice was also included.

From interviews with School Committee members

- School Committee members' attendance at workshops on: HIV/AIDS, gender, school management, the Millennium Development Goals/ Education for All, reproductive health, budget tracking and resource mobilisation.
- Provision of training by the School Committee or Parent Teacher Association specifically for parents within the last year.
- School Committee work on girls' education with key disadvantaged groups in the community (as listed above for head teachers)
- Particular School Committee activities carried out in order to help these disadvantaged groups (as listed above for head teachers)
- School Committee action in 2008 in the following areas:
 - Monitoring school enrolments
 - Checking on attendance
 - Monitoring numbers passing exams
 - Checking on gender balance in exam passes
 - Contacting families where children do not attend
 - Ensuring teachers both teach lessons and mark homework
 - Encouraging action on HIV/AIDS and gender equality

From interviews with girls

- As with data for teachers, averages were calculated for all (usually 10) girls interviewed in each school on the extent to which:
 - detailed information on HIV/AIDS had been given (e.g. information on HIV transmission and prevention, use of condoms, where to get help, and stigma and discrimination);
 - detailed information on girls' and women's rights had been given (e.g. the right to stay at school, not to be married before 18, to participate in school governing bodies and to hold senior positions within government).

Relative 'success' or evidence of action on these key school management indicators was summed (with points for every category and sub-category listed above) into an overall management score for each school. Schools were ranked according to this score in each country and were grouped into three bands: 1) below average performance; 2) average performance; 3) above average performance.



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